The Nation.

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The Week.

If anybody had said, at the beginning of the present session of Congress, that five months' time would be consumed by the Republicans in bringing a tariff bill to the point of actual debate in the House, he would have found nobody to believe him. Yet that is the upshot of the labors of Mr. McKinley and his Committee. They have been at work since December, and they now talk as though they expected to pass their bill through both houses and a conference committee by the 10th of July. The debate was opened by Mr. McKinley, who labored heavily to furnish some reason for increasing duties above the present exorbitant rates. He said that the country, in the election of 1888, virtually instructed Congress to pass a bill sustaining the principles of protection. He did not mention what the aggregate vote of the people was, or what kind of an instruction can be drawn from a minority. Under our system of government a constitutional majority often goes with a numerical minority. In such cases the numerical majority have nothing to say against the rule of the smaller number, but they may rightfully deny that any instruction is to be drawn from a numerical minority, or that any moral support is to be found in a gerrymander. (We use this word not in its conventional sense, but because it best expresses the situation—Mr. Harrison having received a majority of the electoral vote, while Mr. Cleveland had a plurality of the popular vote.) All of Mr. McKinley's speech, therefore, which drew inspiration from the vote of the people in 1888, was hollow and insincere. And if we look at the Chicago platform, we find only one specific instruction, and that is that the taxes on tobacco and on alcohol used in the arts should be repealed. This is not done, and Mr. McKinley offered an apology for not doing it. On the other hand, the duties on a vast multitude of things are increased for the purpose of paying campaign debts to particular classes and persons at the expense of other classes and persons. Of course, Mr. McKinley would not avow this, but it is impossible to understand the bill in any other way.

Mr. Mills's speech in reply to McKinley was in good temper, but charged with the fighting spirit. It expressed the confidence which all the foes of the robber tariff feel, that victory will perch on their banners next fall, and that it will be all the more decisive by reason of the monstrous provisions of the pending bill. The mercantile classes have never been so aroused and indignant during the present generation as they are to-day. The farmers have never been so uneasy as they are now. The manufacturers have never been so divided in sentiment on the subject of raw materials and of the tariff in general. The public, wrathful at the picking of their pockets by a cordon of Trusts that have sprung up within two years, are waiting to see whether Congress will afford the one remedy which it *can* give, instead of the slow and doubtful ones which look to litigation in the courts, and are getting ready to pronounce judgment on this particular grievance in the election of a new Congress next November. Mr. Mills's confidence is well founded.

The colloquy in the House of Commons between Mr. Jesse Collings and Sir James Fergusson, Secretary of the Foreign Office, reported by cable, contains something which we commend to the attention of the promoters of the Fair in Chicago. Sir James Fergusson expressed doubts as to whether there was enough promise of advantage to British interests in the Fair to justify official participation in it, and he added:

> "It is probable that the manufacturers of Great Britain would, to a great extent, be deterred from sending exhibits to the Fair if the tariff precluded profitable sales in America."

This, of course, has reference to the effects of the McKinley bill, and it is a view which is undoubtedly shared to a greater or less extent by the manufacturers of the Continent. What object, they naturally ask, can we have in sending goods to a country which is actively engaged in shutting out foreign commerce, and in which importers of foreign goods and their agents are openly denounced as persons engaged in a disreputable calling, and threatened with a denial of the protection of a jury for their property? Any one who supposes that Europeans do not notice the inconsistency of holding an international fair under a Government which is trying to close its ports against foreigners, and that they are not amused by our anxiety for steamers to run to foreign countries while legislating to prevent their bringing return cargoes, underrates their sense of humor. The chances now are that the Chicago Fair will be simply an American Fair, and that "the world" will have but little to do with it. This would probably have been true of the proposed Fair in New York also. The McKinley bill abroad produces the impression that American democracy is lapsing into barbarism, especially when taken in connection with the action of Congress on the question of international copyright.

It is a rare occasion when we can find anything to commend in the performances of Congressman Boutelle, but he introduced a bill in the House last week which deserves only praise. It is in the shape of a section which it is proposed to add to the Inter-State Commerce Act, and reads as follows: "That nothing contained in this Act shall be construed to authorize the sale or traffic in intoxicating liquors in any State contrary to the laws thereof." The Supreme Court took occasion to say, in the decision rendered by Chief-Justice Fuller last week, that Congress may pass an act of this sort permitting the States to apply their own laws to the traffic in liquors imported from other States, and there are evident and abundant reasons why it should pass such an act, while no objection is apparent. It is universally conceded that the States ought to enjoy this power, which most people supposed that they possessed before the supreme tribunal decided to the contrary; and the only way they can now secure it is through the passage of such a bill as Mr. Boutelle has introduced.

Some very grotesque comments have been made upon the Supreme Court's "original-package" decision, but the palm must be awarded to certain "temperance workers," mentioned by the Washington correspondent of the Boston *Journal*, whose "theory seems to be that the complexion of the Court was changed by electing Mr. Cleveland, who was enabled to appoint two extreme States'-rights Democrats to the bench, and, but for the fact that they have seats on that bench, this decision might not have been rendered." To appreciate fully the humor of this theory, one must reflect that the States'-rights side of the pending question was that which held that each State possesses the power to regulate the liquor traffic for itself, while the Federalist side was that which maintained the supremacy of Congress; and that the two Democratic appointees of President Cleveland, Fuller and Lamar, both took the Federalist side, along with Miller, Bradley, and Blatchford of the Republicans. Equally amusing is the theory of "Rising Sun Stove Polish" Morse that the people really responsible for the decision of the Court are the men in this State who voted for St. John in 1884. "The third-party Prohibitionists of New York," he says, "elected Cleveland by giving him the electoral votes of that State. Cleveland appointed Chief-Justice Fuller, a Democrat, and made a majority of the Supreme Court in favor of the liquor traffic possible. Had they helped to elect a Republican President, Republican judges would have sat upon this question and a different decision would have been reached, and the decision of the lower court would have been affirmed." If a man like Morse ever stopped to think, it would puzzle even him to give any reason for supposing that, if Mr. Blaine had been elected and had appointed two Republican judges, those two Republicans would have been any more likely to vote with Harlan, Gray, and Brewer than with Miller, Bradley, and Blatchford.

Congressman McCreary's charge, that the abandonment of the contemplated trip of the South Americans through the Southern States was due to a "premeditated blunder" on the part of Mr. Blaine, is putting it a little

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too strong. There was blundering enough, to be sure, and it was that which led to giving up the trip, but Mr. Blaine was far from desiring that result. One of the most distinguished of the foreign delegates has stated that the work of the Pan-American Congress could have been done in half the time actually consumed, had it not been for the faulty management of the affair by the State Department. Through the lack of material and a programme for the Congress, both of which should have been carefully prepared, through the delays caused in the attempt to foist a secretary upon the Congress personally distasteful to the foreign delegates, through the squabbling of the American representatives among themselves, through the fearful inadequacy of the clerical force, especially the translators, and through Mr. Blaine's obstinate efforts to get his plan of arbitration adopted in the form upon which he had set his heart, and which he did not get after all, the Congress was so spun out that the Southern tour was made impossible. Probably the only thing that reconciles Mr. Blaine to that failure is the fact that it strikes off some thousands from the deficiency bill he will have, in all likelihood, to present to Congress. The true point of attack for Mr. McCreary is the Secretary's bad management. Most diplomats would have concerned themselves about the details of such a gathering; but "American diplomacy" would appear to consist in turning them over to incapable subordinates, and in dreaming pleasant dreams.

If any one wishes to have a better understanding of the occult forces which succeed in defeating an international copyright law, he will find much light in a column advertisement which occupies a prominent position on the first page of the *Christian Advocate* for May 8. That paper is the official organ of the Methodist Episcopal Church and of the Methodist Book Concern. The advertisement opens with the following remarkable declaration:

> "A publishing firm of New York, having purchased a manuscript from Mr. Stanley relating exclusively to his Emin Pasha relief expedition, are preparing to publish the same in book-form some months hence. This firm has a perfect right to purchase manuscripts from Mr. Stanley, and to publish them if it so desires, and we also have the right to do the same thing if it pleases us; but neither we nor these publishers have any right to resort to misrepresentation for the purpose of misleading the public with reference to our respective books."

The advertisers, who are the Methodist Book Concern, go on to say, with thinly disguised phraseology, that their book will be made of matter which has cost nothing—that is, of pirated or stolen material—and that they will thus be able to sell it for less than half the price at which the publishers who have bought their material of Stanley will be able to sell theirs. They even denounce the latter publishers for trying to make the people "buy these high-tariff" and "high-priced books intended for the studious or the shelves of the rich, and not for popular use." Finally, as a parting word of instruction to their agents, these highly moral Christian publishers say:

> "Do not be frightened by the unjust and untrue statements which appear in papers, and which are supplied and paid for by rival publishers. Remember that *you can arrange with an editor for just as strong notices of your book, if you care to pay for them, because the business of an editor is to make money for his paper;* and as long as you pay him for what you desire inserted, he will treat you just as kindly as he will any one else."

Senator Quay, as Chairman of the National Republican Committee, is sending out circulars asking Republican voters to take his certificates of party membership and return him the coupons, with $10 for each coupon, in order that he may get together a fund for the distribution of tariff documents. He assures all subscribers that a "record will be kept" of their names, but gives no guarantee that he will not take their money for his own uses, as he took the money of the State of Pennsylvania when he was one of its public officials. A man who, as Secretary of State, took $260,000 from the State Treasury and lost it in stock speculation, and again as State Treasurer took $400,000 of the public money in his care and speculated with it, being able, because of better luck, to return it again, is not a safe person to trust with a large campaign fund for which there is no accounting to be given. We should suppose that subscribers would think of Quay's record before they sent back his coupons with $10, even if the certificates which he sends out do bear a fine portrait of Abraham Lincoln. In fact, Wanamaker's portrait would be a much more suitable ornament for the certificates in every way, for it would serve as a trademark for the kind of business which Quay is engaged in, and through which Wanamaker himself got into public office.

Mr. Beekman, the former Corporation Counsel, who has spent much time at Albany during the session of the Legislature which ended on Thursday last, is quoted by the *World* as having said of that body: "It's awful, awful! Any man who goes up there and watches them for twenty-four hours will say that anything would be better for New York than to be at the mercy of such a gang." Similar testimony has come from other witnesses, of equally high character and capacity for sound judgment, who have had occasion to go to Albany during the past few months. The estimates of the press almost unanimously coincide with these personal observations. It is agreed on all hands that the late Legislature is one of the very worst the State has ever been burdened with. Yet, after all, the amount of positive harm which it has done is very small. By a wise dispensation of Providence, the worst men and worst jobs were about evenly divided between the two political parties, and in every instance in which a common agreement to plunder the public could not be reached, failure was the ultimate result. If all the jobbers had united for a grand raid, the plight of the State would have been woful indeed.

The new registration law which the late Legislature passed should be set down among the most praiseworthy acts of that body. It will be of great service in aiding the operation of the new ballot law, and, in connection with that and the Corrupt-Practices Act, will give to the State the best series of election laws possessed by any State in the Union. Our present system of personal registration, which applies only to New York and Brooklyn, is, under the new law, extended to all the cities of the State, twenty-eight in number, while the system hitherto used in these smaller cities, registration in person or through a friend, is extended to all the rural portions of the State. In this way the entire State is brought under a complete system of registration by means of which fraudulent voting will be made so difficult as to be practically abolished. No man can vote on election day unless his name be found on the poll list when he asks for his ballots. He can vote no ballots save those he receives inside the polling-place, and he must prepare and deposit his ballot in complete seclusion, free from espionage of all kinds. If he accepts a bribe of any kind for his vote, or if in consideration of such bribe he refrains from voting, he will be liable to imprisonment for not less than three months nor more than one year, and will be excluded from the right of suffrage for five years. The law for counting the votes in New York has always been regarded as one of the best in the Union, and has proved, in several close and critical contests, to be a sure bulwark against tampering with the returns. Now that we are assured of an absolutely fair and untrammelled ballot, as well as a fair count, there can be no further apprehension of a dishonest election in this State.

Thanks to the juggling tactics of Mr. Gardenier, the Republican Chairman of the Committee on Codes, the amendment to the Corrupt-Practices Act, extending its provisions to campaign committees, failed to reach a vote in the Assembly. We have no doubt that the politicians of both parties were in cordial sympathy with Mr. Gardenier—for they have the best of reasons for not desiring to see the amendment become a law—and that a majority of the members of the Assembly were very glad not to have to vote upon it. As the law stands, however, it will give them much annoyance when the next election comes around, provided they run for office. They will be obliged to file sworn statements of every dollar received or spent in the campaign and election; and if anybody be disposed to follow them up closely, this requirement may get offenders into serious trouble. In this city, for example, every candidate who pays an assessment will be obliged to publish the amount of it under oath, under penalty of imprisonment for not less than three months nor more than one year if he does not, together with the forfeiture of his office in case he has been elected. The friends of honest government ought to form an organization of some kind for the express purpose of seeing that the law is obeyed to the letter, and that perjurers under it are exposed and pun-

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ished. This would be a first-rate public service for our energetic City Reform Club to take in hand.

Louisiana alone, of all the States in the Union, elects her legislators for four years, each body of law-makers holding two sessions during that period. The second session of the Legislature chosen in 1888 opened on Monday, and it possesses a national interest from the fact that the Louisiana Lottery Company is to make a desperate struggle for a fresh lease of life. The term of its existence under the State Constitution is nearly ended, and unless it can secure the passage of a constitutional amendment permitting an extension of its charter, it will have to shut up shop. The managers make most alluring offers, promising to pay the State a million of dollars a year, and they have largely subsidized the press, so that there is too much reason to fear that they may succeed. Gov. Nicholls has proved himself a worthy executive by devoting a large share of his message to the Legislature to an earnest protest against the continuance of lottery rule in Louisiana. He drew a graphic picture of the despotism which the ring would exercise if it should secure a fresh lease of power. "Should this lottery get firmly planted in this State," he said, "it will own and hold the purchasable vote, solidly, in the hollow of its hands for ever; and, through it and by it, the liberties, the property, and the honor of the people of Louisiana are at its feet. It would make and unmake governors, judges, senators, representatives, commissioners of election, returning officers, assessors, and all other officials at its will. Merit would be disregarded, and the test for office would not be ability, integrity, public spirit, or worth, but subserviency to the behests of that company." He concluded by announcing his resolution to exercise all the influence of his official position to avert the threatened disaster and disgrace, and by invoking the co-operation of all good citizens. The lottery managers are reported to be confident that they have "fixed" a majority of the Legislature, but the manly attitude of Gen. Nicholls ought to arouse a public sentiment which will prove irresistible. It was the opposition of the Governor of North Dakota which blocked a similar scheme in that State last winter.

Even if the lottery ring should capture the State of Louisiana, it would still be possible to break its power. The company declares that only 3 per cent. of its revenue comes from the people of the State, so that a Federal statute depriving it of its present privilege of using the mails to gather money from all parts of the Union would render a new charter worthless. "The Anti-Lottery League of Louisiana," whose roll of officers includes many of the most distinguished citizens of the State, has been organized for the purpose of overthrowing the ring, and it makes an earnest appeal for the passage by Congress of a law which would prevent the company from using the mails. It ought to be possible to frame a measure which would secure this end without infringing upon the rights of the public, and such a measure should be passed. At present, as the appeal of the League truly says, "the United States postal service is the means used by the lottery company for the debasement of national morals," and such a state of things is nothing less than a national scandal.

One of the curious phases of the liquor question in England is the acknowledgment by the Government and the community that not only is a distillery or brewery property entitled to the protection of the law, but that a liquor-dealer's license is property which cannot be taken away from him, without compensation, except in case of misbehavior. Consequently, whenever the question of reducing the number of public houses comes up, the question of compensation to the holders of the licenses comes up with it. Those who know what the prohibitionist view of intoxicating drinks is in this country, can easily understand how fiercely the public is divided on this latter question in England. To pay the money of the taxpayers to people who have been poisoning the bodies and ruining the souls of the community to remunerate them for the loss of their hellish traffic, is a proposal which lashes an English teetotaler into fury. But the reverence for property, deeply implanted in every Englishman's bosom, has thus far secured the liquor-dealers against any such legislation as that which in Kansas and Iowa swept the breweries and distilleries out of existence, with the sanction of the United States Supreme Court, without the smallest compensation. Both parties in England have thus far shrunk from any proposal to take away licenses without paying for them. The present Ministry has undertaken to solve the difficulty by increasing the duty on spirits, so as to form a fund out of which to compensate the holders of licenses, and have incorporated a clause in the budget to this effect at the eleventh hour, and before any previous discussion of the object of the tax. This marked departure from Parliamentary as well as constitutional usage is, combined with the heat which always surrounds the liquor question, likely to make a great explosion, in which the Ministry may suffer considerable damage.

The break between Emin Pasha and Stanley, of which there have been rumors for a good while, now seems to be public property, for Emin has openly announced his distrust of Stanley, and intimates that if he were to tell what he knows about Stanley and Tippoo Tib, the great Arab chief of the Congo, it would create a great sensation. The reason he gives for desiring to take service with the Germans rather than the English, is that the English were "trying to derive advantage from the prestige of his name." There is no doubt that if he had joined Stanley, he would have gone to England in the rôle of second fiddle to that explorer, and he doubtless perceived this as soon as he was rescued. Stanley has said nothing to raise Emin's credit, and in fact has given rather a depreciatory account of his state of mind when he was found on the great lakes. Emin has taken service now with the Germans, and is to have some field of work assigned to him in Africa. But the German leader there is Maj. Wissmann, an able and resolute soldier and explorer, who is pushing his way vigorously into the German "sphere of influence." Much bad feeling is growing up among the African adventurers of both nationalities, and the situation is getting to resemble strikingly that in this country in the middle of the last century, when the English and French were contending for the valley of the Mississippi.

The late municipal elections in Paris—that is, election of members of the Municipal Council—were a fair trial of Boulanger's remaining strength in the place where he once was strongest—the capital. His followers expected to win forty seats for him, and they won just two positively, with a chance of three more on a second ballot. This seems to make an end of him politically. There is a rumor that he proposes, by way of bringing himself once more into notice, to return to France if the Government will give him a new trial, or, indeed, to return anyhow and take his chance; but this latter is very unlikely. The difficulty in the way of this programme is, that the French public has had a new sensation in the arrest and imprisonment of the Duc d'Orléans, who is a competitor of Boulanger's for the business of saving French society, so that it would be very difficult to get up another about a cast-off hero.

The financial situation of Italy is breaking down the Crispi Ministry to all outward appearance, and throwing the whole kingdom into political confusion. The unbearable burdens are undoubtedly due in the main to an endéavor to live up to the obligations imposed by the triple alliance with Germany and Austria. For example, in 1875, before the alliance, the army appropriations amounted to about $34,000,000. In 1889 they amounted to over $73,000,000, or more than double. In 1870 the naval expenses amounted to about $6,000,000. In 1889 they had reached $24,000,000 in round numbers, or four times as much, and besides this there have been several supplemental appropriations. Signor Magliani, former Minister of Finance, and now a severe critic of the Ministry, in a speech recently delivered at Naples, proposed to remedy all this by a readjustment of taxes which he thinks would bring in about $6,000,000, and by a reduction of about as much more in the naval and military expenses. The situation is an extremely critical one, and the remedy will have to be applied before long. The city of Rome has apparently already gone into bankruptcy, and other Italian cities may have to share the same fate unless the public burdens are lightened.

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AN UNPLEASANT CONTRAST.

"I AM proud of their splendid courage when I remember that they are Americans," said Gen. Garfield in the House of Representatives June 25, 1864, speaking of the Confederates. "It is over, thank God!" said Senator Sherman, in speaking of the war, during a speech at Nashville, Tenn., March 24, 1887, "but the courage, bravery, and fortitude of both sides are now the pride and heritage of us all."

These utterances of leading supporters of the Union cause, one during the struggle itself and the other nearly a quarter of a century later, represent the feeling of all candid men regarding the soldiers of the two sections. Nobody thinks of claiming that one army was the superior of the other in manly qualities, and it is a source of pride to every patriotic citizen that the Southern troops displayed such courage and fortitude that no question of that sort can ever arise. One cannot contrast the soldierly qualities of Federal and Confederate, because they were identical.

It would be a terrible misfortune to all Americans if the men who served in either army should make a record after the close of the war which was unworthy of them, and it would be especially humiliating to the people of the North if that record should be made by Union veterans. Unhappily, it must be confessed that occasion has of late been furnished for a contrast between the ex-Federals and the ex-Confederates to the disadvantage of the former.

The surrender of Lee left the Southern soldiers without resources, to begin life again in a country devastated by war. Lee told Grant that his men had been living for some days on parched corn exclusively, and that he would have to ask the victors for rations and forage to keep them from starving. Grant voluntarily proposed that the Confederate soldiers should keep their horses or mules as a matter of necessity. Here is his description of the incident in his 'Memoirs':

> "I then said to him [Lee] that I thought this would be about the last battle of the war—I sincerely hoped so; and I said further I took it that most of the men in the ranks were small farmers. The whole country had been so raided by the two armies that it was doubtful whether they would be able to put in a crop to carry themselves and their families through the next winter without the aid of the horses they were then riding. The United States did not want them, and I would, therefore, instruct the officers I left behind to receive the paroles of his troops, to let every man of the Confederate Army who claimed to own a horse or mule take the animal to his home. Lee remarked again that this would have a happy effect."

It would be almost impossible to exaggerate the hardness of the ex-Confederate's lot when he returned to his home. Even if disabled by wounds or disease, he could not look to the authorities anywhere for relief, since the Federal Government treated him as a traitor and his State was too poor to do anything for him; indeed, at first he really had no State, living under military rule. In short, he had only himself to depend upon. But he was not daunted by the difficulties of his situation. He set to work and was soon making his own way in the world, and gaining both confidence and self-respect with every forward step.

The victorious army also returned to the million homes from which it had been gathered. The nation it had saved was prompt to recognize its services. Generous provision was made for the pensioning of any man who had suffered a wound or contracted a chronic disease during his service. The sufferers quickly availed themselves of the offer of aid, and within ten years after the close of the war the annual appropriations for pensions—then less than $30,000,000—began to show the falling off which was to be expected from the ravages of death among those on the roll. In 1875 the Union soldier's reputation in peace worthily sustained the honor which he had gained in war.

The situation is different in 1890. Instead of having fallen off, as was expected fifteen years ago, and would have happened in a normal state of things, the annual appropriation for pensions has more than trebled, until it now reaches about $100,000,000, while one branch of Congress has just passed a bill which would increase the demand by about $50,000,000 more a year. Instead of being a roll of honor, containing only the names of those who earned a claim upon the nation's especial consideration by casualties of service which disabled them from earning a living, the list of pensioners already contains thousands of men who are in no sense disabled, and who therefore have no moral claim to an allowance from the Treasury. The pending proposition to give a pension to every soldier when he reaches the age of sixty, involves grants to tens of thousands who not only were never wounded or otherwise injured, but who are as well off as the majority of their fellow-countrymen who are to be taxed for their benefit. And there is another project earnestly supported which proposes to abolish the limit of age entirely, and enable any man of forty-five, though he may have a competence, to draw eight dollars a month for the remainder of his life from the Federal Treasury, provided he was in any way connected with the Union Army for the space of ninety days.

These wholesale pension schemes to-day threaten to ruin the reputation of the Union soldier. While the soldier who served in the Confederate army represents the best element in Southern society—the men who have built up a new prosperity on the ruins of the old by working hard and depending upon themselves—the ex-Union soldier is coming to stand in the public mind for a helpless and greedy sort of person, who says that he is not able to support himself, and whines that other people ought to do it for him. According to the claims now made, victory left the representatives of the rich North worse off than defeat left those of the devastated South.

It is truly an unpleasant contrast. The mischief, however, is not as yet irreparable. If the self-respecting veterans everywhere throughout the North will follow the example of those in Galena, Ill., who declare that the pending schemes are "degrading to the old soldiers," and who call upon their Congressman to vote against all such bills, the demagogues at Washington will be forced to listen and obey. The only question is, whether demoralization has already gone so far that the spirit of manliness which has just blazed up in Gen. Grant's old home, will die out again, and leave the reputation of the Union soldier tarnished by himself.

THE PRESBYTERIAN TROUBLE.

THE session of the Presbyterian General Assembly, which begins at Saratoga this week, has this most striking characteristic, that it concerns hardly more the Presbyterians themselves, though to them it is an occasion of most absorbing interest, than it does Dr. Alden and his friends on the American Board, and equally their opponents — that is to say, the whole Congregational body — on one side, and the Roman Catholics on the other. It is an instructive instance of the virtual solidarity of modern dogmatic theology that the proposed revision of the Presbyterian standards should thus affect the two extremes of the ecclesiastical scale by its relation to the vexed question of the "larger hope," or probation after death, and to the Catholic doctrine of "the middle state." But so it is, and the Presbyterians, proceeding *in medio*—in this case not the safest nor the easiest path—will find themselves watched, more passionately perhaps by the friends and the enemies of the "new theology" in the Congregational order, but quite as closely by the keen-eyed Roman Catholics, who are more alive than any other class of men to the direct results and multiple implications of any change in Protestant theology.

As to interest of the Roman Catholics in the matter, it is further strange to observe that it is scarcely at all excited by anything which affects them directly, such as the Presbyterian classification of "infidels, Papists, or other idolaters," which it is proposed to reform by omitting the word "other"; or the declaration that the Pope of Rome "is that Antichrist, that man of sin, and son of perdition, that exalteth himself in the Church against Christ, and all that is called God," which it is proposed to eliminate. These things the Roman Catholics regard with calm indifference, and if they did not, the proposed modification would avail nothing so long as the chapter on the Lord's Supper was suffered to remain. That chapter denounces the Roman doctrine of the mass as "most abominably injurious to Christ's one and only sacrifice," and as "the cause of manifold superstitions, yea, of gross idolatries"; so if it were allowed to stand unaltered, the Roman Catholics still would be declared idolaters. And striking out the declaration about Antichrist would be a work of supererogation, after Dr. Briggs's acknowledgment, in his book 'Whither,' that "Protestant divines have always recognized that the Church of Rome was a true church. . . . They unite with her in veneration of the noble army of martyrs—pious monks, bishops, archbishops, and popes—who have adorned the history of the Western Church. These are our heritage as well as theirs." If it can be a "true church" in which Antichrist reigned, and if Presby-

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terians "venerate" popes who exalted themselves "in the Church against Christ and all that is called God," the Roman Catholics naturally will not mind much the fulminations of the Westminster Confession.

The interest of the Roman Catholics is not in these things—it is one with the interest of the Congregationalists; both depend upon the proposed recasting of the standards so that they shall be made to declare, in the words of the New York Presbytery's Committee, "the general love of God for all mankind, the salvation in Jesus Christ provided for all, and to be preached to every creature," and be "so revised as not to appear to discriminate concerning infants dying in infancy, or so as to omit all reference to them (section 3, chap. 10); and so as to preclude that explanation of section fourth which makes it teach the damnation of all the heathen, or makes it deny that there are any heathen who are regenerated and saved by Christ through the Spirit, and who endeavor to walk in penitence and humility, according to the measure of light which God has been pleased to grant them." These are cardinal points of Presbyterianism, and debate must run high over them when the fathers and brethren meet. They will be called upon either to deny or to reaffirm the decree of reprobation, or "foreordination of some men and angels to everlasting death"; election of some, so that "neither are any other redeemed by Christ effectually called, justified, adopted, sanctified, and saved, but the elect only," and preterition, or "the passing by of the rest of mankind," and "the foreordaining of them to dishonor and wrath"; and damnation of the whole non-Christian world, including non-elect infants. But it happens that to free the Confession from what these doctrines presuppose, or what grows out of them by necessary consequence, will require not mere excision, but total reconstruction, or rather a root-and-branch regrowth. These are central ideas of the system as contained not merely in the Confession but in catechisms, Plan of Government, and Directory of Public Worship. The idea of a limited atonement runs through the whole Presbyterian structure, and to withdraw it would leave nothing to hold the parts together. The Confession is full of implications, necessary conclusions, and plain insinuations, all to the same effect as the distinct declarations which some now wish to remove from it.

A means of compromise has been proposed by allowing the Confession to remain unchanged, supplementing it with a "short and simple creed," declaring "the love of God in Christ for all mankind"; but this would mean merely that the Presbyterians would have two opposing creeds directly contradicting each other. The simplest solution, and one consistent with express declarations of the Westminster Confession of Faith, would be to expunge every article and chapter except the first chapter; that on "The Holy Scripture," which declares that the Bible is the only "rule of faith and life," and that "the infallible rule of interpretation of Scripture is the Scripture itself." But this would be to abandon Presbyterianism, and really to take the whole Presbyterian body over to the "Disciples of Christ," who are virtually a sort of Baptist-Unitarians; so we may not look to see the matter issue in this form.

A secular critic will not be suspected of objecting on principle to restatement, or even development, of Christian truth. Development has the mark of primitive rather than of modern times. There is no reason why truth may not be developed in the nineteenth century as well as in the third century, provided the same conditions are given—the freshness and courage of the third century in dealing with doctrine might be displayed in our day, if it were supported by the same knowledge, zeal, humility, and readiness for martyrdom. Only there is the important circumstance that the whole Church now is never ready to speak all at once, in which circumstance attempts at "repristination" are somewhat perilous. The working-out of the renovated Presbyterian doctrine on the side of eschatology would be a very serious matter, and exceeding difficult, in view of all manner of contention certain to arise over it. "The souls of believers are at their death made perfect in holiness," says the Westminster Shorter Catechism, a declaration which the *Catholic World* says is "but a plenary indulgence without conditions." But Dr. Briggs says, "Immediate sanctification at death is an error added on to the orthodox doctrine of sanctification that makes it inconsistent and virtually destroys it." Prof. Briggs holds to an intermediate state, and inclines to the opinion that it is one of progressive sanctification, being obliged thereby to deny the particular judgment of each soul after death in order to maintain the theory that there are opportunities in the middle state for further sanctification of those who need it, including the heathen. This would be objected to at once by Dr. Alden and his friends, and by the Roman Catholics, as a theory devised simply to meet a difficulty created by Calvinism, and as introducing other difficulties in the way of orthodoxy greater than any which it undertakes to solve. What the precise answer of Dr. Alden's party might be we cannot say, but probably they would affirm themselves to be more Calvinist than the revising Presbyterians, which no doubt would be true. The Roman Catholic answer would be that the universality of the benefits of redemption in this life removes the necessity of the extension of them to a future state.

It is not necessary to pursue the subject further in order to indicate the origin of the Congregational and the Roman Catholic concern in the General Assembly's revision work. Every line of that work properly run out to its natural end will touch some matter of peculiar interest to one or the other of those bodies, and from both of them inquiries may proceed, answers to which the Presbyterians probably have not yet thought out. Why, for example, does the new eschatology omit its manifestly necessary corollary— prayers for the dead? Its view of man's condition after death would make the practice of praying for the dead a most urgent duty. It seems absurd for Dr. Briggs to stop short of this practice, the fact being that prayers for the dead furnish the bulk of the testimony for the primitive belief in the middle state.

ARE ORCHESTRAL MUSICIANS ARTISTS?

MUCH has been written recently regarding the question whether the Musical Mutual Protective Union could succeed in preventing the famous Strauss orchestra, which has just arrived, from giving concerts in the United States, on account of the Alien-Contract-Labor Law. But there is a comic side to this question which deserves some attention. Jokes generally lose their point if they have to be explained, but in this case a few historic references are needed to make clear the funny part of this business. In the Middle Ages, when instrumental music was coming into general vogue, for its own sake or as an accompaniment to song, the minstrels and other musicians were regarded as mere vagabonds. As Naumann remarks in his 'History of Music,' "they never achieved any social distinction or attained any civil rights. True it is that their existence was tolerated, but all real protection of the law was withheld from them. Indeed, to such an extent was this carried that a strolling player might suffer bodily injury, even by the sword of his assailant, and yet have no claim to compensation. The farcical performance of striking at the *shadow* of his wanton aggressor a blow similar to that which he himself had received, was the only protection the law afforded him. Thus this remarkable people, unwittingly possessed of a romantic spirit, remained throughout the Middle Ages honorless and homeless outcasts. Even the Church withheld its sympathy, and denied them the right to partake of the Christian sacrament."

As late as the eighteenth century, operatic performers were regarded as being without the pale of ordinary citizenship, and even composers and famous virtuosi were treated very often as servants. The indignities suffered by Mozart which induced him to leave Salzburg, are well known; and Sir Julius Benedict, in his 'Life of Weber,' gives this striking account of the state of affairs in London only three-quarters of a century ago: "In the huge 'reunions' of the aristocracy, artists were not expected to mix with the company. Shut up, till everybody had assembled, in a small room, bid by insolent lackeys to enter the gorgeous drawing-rooms by a back staircase, even *separated in some cases by a cord* from the rest of humanity, to avoid any contagion, commanded like any menial to sing their songs, . . . the concert over, either directed to take their refreshments in a separate room or to go home supperless—all this considered, it was not to be wondered at that even richly remunerated artists were disgusted with the treatment they received."

Within the last half century, however, the social status of musicians has rapidly improved, so that to-day not only distinguished artists but ordinary orchestral musicians,

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provided they are gentlemen, are treated as such in society and admitted to the privileges of guests, because it is beginning to be recognized that to play a musical instrument well requires artistic intelligence and taste. If, therefore, the M. M. P. U. or the Balfe Club (which has presented a formal protest against the landing of the Strauss Orchestra), should succeed in keeping these musicians out, on the ground that they are mere laborers, on a level with hod-carriers and miners, and not artists, they would thereby prove that they themselves, the orchestral musicians of New York, are not artists, and that the social privileges now accorded them are undeserved. A neater boomerang could not be devised.

So much for the comic side of this business. But there is another aspect, which would be very serious indeed if a handful of musicians, most of whom emigrated to this country, should be enabled to prevent sixty-five millions of Americans from having an opportunity to enjoy the performances of one of the most famous orchestras in Europe. This would put an arbitrary power in their hands which no German Bismarck or Russian Czar even would dream of arrogating to himself, and which, if submitted to by the American officials, would make them the laughing-stock of all Europe. It would be wofully absurd even to subject the members of the Strauss Orchestra to individual examination, like Barnum's tuba-player, whose landing the M. M. P. U. tried to prevent, and who would have been returned to Europe had it not been for the interference of a newspaper reporter. For the Strauss musicians do not come here as solo performers, and are therefore not to be judged as such. They come here as integral parts of an orchestra which has won world-wide fame as an interpreter of a special branch of music, in which it has no equal. Mr. Seidl says of this orchestra that it "is altogether unique, and of its kind the most excellent in existence," and Mr. Wm. Steinway says that "no existing orchestra plays the characteristic music of the Strauss family with the Strauss vim, as the Strauss Orchestra does. To accomplish this, each player must be an artist." The great success of the Strauss Orchestra in London and in all the leading German cities which were visited last season, shows that Eduard Strauss has succeeded in keeping the orchestra which his brother and father conducted before him up to its former artistic level. And it is self-evident that it would be folly for him to engage any but the best artists in a city which is so full of first-class musicians as Vienna.

In the face of such facts, the M. M. P. U. will do well not to cover itself with ridicule and odium by interfering with the Strauss concert tour. But it is perhaps too much to expect this Socialistic cabal to act with discretion. A few years ago they tried to ruin the Thomas Orchestra by preventing Mr. Thomas from importing such musicians as he needed to make his band first-class; and we heard another distinguished leader say a few days ago that the high prices now asked by members of this "protective" Union had compelled him to give up his annual series of concerts in New York, and that things had come to such a pass that no one could venture to give a concert unless he was backed by a millionaire or a society.

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

BOSTON, May 8, 1890.

THE spring meeting of the Society was held yesterday at the rooms of the American Academy. To the great regret of the members, Prof. W. D. Whitney sent in his resignation as President. Dr. Wm. Hayes Ward was elected to fill his place. The other officers elected for the year were: Vice-Presidents, Rev. A. P. Peabody, Prof. E. E. Salisbury, Prof. D. C. Gilman; Secretaries, Prof. D. G. Lyon, Prof. C. R. Lanman, Prof. W. W. Goodwin; Treasurer, Mr. A. Van Name: Directors, Mr. A. I. Cotheal, Prof. M. Bloomfield, Prof. J. H. Thayer, Prof. E. W. Hopkins, Prof. R. J. H. Gottheil, Prof. A. L. Frothingham, Prof. J. P. Taylor. Profs. Antonio Maria Ceriani (Milan), H. Brugsch-Pasha (Berlin), Eberhard Schrader (Berlin), and William D. Whitney (New Haven) were elected honorary members. Mr. Alexander I. Cotheal of New York sent a gift of $1,000 to the Society.

The following papers were presented: Prof. W. R. Harper (Yale), with a view to show the value of historical syntax, gave several studies of the Taylor inscription of Sennacherib. The following points were dwelt upon: the accusative in *u* and *a*, the relation between adjective and substantive, permansive, participle, infinitive, and noun with pronominal suffixes. Mr. Lester Brader, jr. (Yale), presented "A Classification of the Sentences in the Taylor Inscription of Sennacherib." Mr. George A. Barton (Harvard) spoke on "The Origin and Character of Tiamat," the Biblical *tehōm*, symbolized as a dragon. Dr. Wm. Hayes Ward spoke on "Babylonian Mythology as illustrated by Babylonian Art." The chief sources of information are the seal cylinders. Dr. Ward thinks that there is no figure of Gisdubar on the celebrated Sargon stone. The figure is rather that of the god of fertilizing waters. We see this from other examples in which there appears in addition an undoubted Gisdubar figure. This god of the fertilizing waters is represented with fish, and with streams coming from his shoulders or from his navel. Before the god there generally appears an attendant pushing a figure. In later art the stream disappears, and the figure seems to come forward willingly. Dr. Ward sees in this figure Shamash, the sun-god, who is also pictured with streams. The Abbu Habba tablet seems to represent the same scene as the one so familiar to us on the seals. When the streams disappear from the seated god, they reappear in the emblems of the sun-god, as four streams of water crossing a circle. There is no doubt that the figure on the Abbu Habba tablet is that of Shamash. The scene must therefore be laid in Heaven, and not in Hades, as heretofore supposed. In the Abbu Habba representation, the god rides upon the *upper* waters, in the neighborhood of which stars are plainly visible.

Dr. Robert Harper (Yale) made a communication in regard to three tablets now in his possession which he had brought back from the University of Pennsylvania's expedition to Babylonia. They belong to the so-called class of loan-tablets, and were unearthed at Niffer. They are dated in the years two and four of Ashur-itilli-ilani, King of Assyria. The dates are of chronological value. They show that the Babylonian Empire existed, if only in name, for four years after the death of Assurbanipal.

Mr. F. P. Ramsay (Wetheredville, Md.) proposed to substitute the terms "postpositive" and "prepositive" in Semitic grammar for perfect and imperfect. Dr. William M. Arnolt (Johns Hopkins) sent a criticism of Schrader's 'Keilinschriftliche Bibliothek,' vol. ii., and Prof. D. G. Lyon (Harvard) a criticism of Peiser's 'Keilinschriftliche Aktenstücke.'

Dr. Cyrus Adler (Johns Hopkins) presented an account of the Johns Hopkins and the Abbot Egyptian collections. The first consists of 680 objects collected by Col. Mendez I. Cohn in the years 1832 and 1835. Among them are two Coptic inscriptions deciphered by Mr. W. Max Müller. The Abbot collection, the property of the New York Historical Society, is well known. It is said to be fully equal to the great collections in Europe; Miss Edwards is authority for the statement that it is one of the best in the world. The more the pity that it is not put in a building where it can be studied to advantage, and that complaints have been made by several scholars that it is not readily accessible.

Rev. Lysander Dickerman discussed the Egyptian synonyms for the word pyramid. He finds the word to be Egyptian and not Greek, and to denote always "a sacred enclosure for the preservation of things."

Prof. R. Gottheil (Columbia) showed several photographs of a remarkable Alhambra vase now in the possession of Mr. Charles A. Dana of New York. The vase is said to have been dug up by some peasants in the Alpujarras, whither Abu Abdallah Mohammad (Boabdil) and the remnants of the Benu Nasr retired after they had surrendered Granada to Queen Isabella, January 2, 1492. The vase is a beautiful specimen of Moorish art. It is perfectly preserved, and contains several interesting Arabic inscriptions. Of the four other Alhambra vases known to exist to-day, that in the Hermitage at St. Petersburg is the only other one in a perfect condition.

Dr. A. V. Williams Jackson (Columbia) read two papers, on "Sanskrit *hrade-caksus* (Rig-veda x., 95, 6)", and on "Avestan Transcription." In the latter, Dr. Jackson pleaded for a uniformity of transcription, at least among American Avestan Scholars. Mr. Charles J. Goodwin sent a paper on "The Hermes Function of the War-God Scanda," based upon a hitherto unpublished text of the 'Atharva-veda.' The likeness between Scanda (from the root *skan*, to leap) and Hermes is very close. They are both gods of cunning and roguery. They have parallel functions, and resemble each other in many minor points.

The fall meeting of the Society will be held at Princeton College. R. J. H. G.

SMOKELESS POWDER.

PARIS, April 23, 1890.

IN the beginning of the month, a brigade provided with the new smokeless powder was sent to Champigny, near Paris, to give a representation of what an engagement under the novel circumstances would be like. Although the powder invented by M. Vieille dates from the time when Gen. Boulanger was Minister of War, the experiments have hitherto been strictly private. So this mimic engagement excited great curiosity among officers and military attachés of foreign Powers. Also a considerable number of *mondains* of both sexes were not disheartened by the early start necessary to enable them to reach the field by nine o'clock. Champigny was a well-chosen spot, owing to the configuration of the country—the villages

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in the plain as points of attack, the hills occupied by the artillery, and the two forts of Sucy and Champigny commanding the region.

It took very little time after the engagement began, to realize how different will be the physiognomy of future battle-fields from those of the past. Artillery and musketry opened fire, and no smoke was visible! A single shot fired from the line of fusiliers was absolutely imperceptible, and a salvo fired by a squad at 300 yards only produced a thin bluish vapor that vanished almost instantly. The vapor attendant on the firing of a cannon was more discernible, but as quickly dissipated. To those near, it looked like a slight rise of brown dust, in no way resembling smoke. Had the cannon been loaded with projectiles, the vapor would have been less visible. But in no instance was the vapor dense enough to indicate—even at a short firing range—the position of artillery or infantry. As to the noise: the report of a Lebel gun, usually very loud, sounds to the soldier who fires it like that of a carbine, and cannot be heard 400 yards off. The sound of the cannon is lessened by half, with none of the reverberating roar or thundering; the report is brief and dry. Yet some of the civilians present were disappointed: they had anticipated more than a comparative silence, doubtless expecting to be in presence of weapons equivalent to pneumatic arms.

Such as it is, the new gunpowder, owing to its chief property (burning without sediment and causing no smoke), becomes an agent sufficiently insidious in modern warfare. The umpires who followed the manœuvres through their field-glasses felt something of this as both sides exchanged fire. More than once, but for their cognizance of the theme of attack and defence, they would have been liable (since there was no smoke to indicate danger) to grow confused as to the points that were safe or exposed, and allow a troop to pass under an invisible but deadly fire without scoring against it. Therefore, according to military men, such manœuvres cease to be a very efficacious training-school for generals and commanders-in-chief; they will contribute so little to familiarize them with the ensemble of a battle and the practice of following its different phases. The smoke of the battle-field has been a useful auxiliary to the commander-in-chief. The clouds and puffs floating over the lines of fire, which he followed from his post of observation—usually an elevated one where the atmosphere remained clear—certified the troops engaged, revealed to his practised eye an estimate of the adversary's forces, and showed him step by step the fluctuations of the battle. In short, they often told him more than the delayed reports of aides-de-camp. In future the commander-in-chief will see very little, almost nothing, if no battle takes place in a diversified or wooded country.

Of course it is admitted that powder without smoke cannot remain the privilege of the French Army. Other European nations have taken up the problem and work it *à l'envie*. Some boast of having a formula—Italy and Germany; Russia, too, who, for prudential reasons, awaits a war to manufacture hers. Hence advantages and disadvantages attending its use in the field of war will be common to both sides. Each acquires a better view of his adversary, but loses the protection that a veil of smoke afforded him. *A priori*, one can judge how doubly important becomes the advantage of being the first to see the enemy—unseen by him if possible. For this reason every detail in the uniform that might mark too conspicuously the presence of a troop is to be discarded. In the French Army red is to be replaced by gray, and the brass buttons will be bronzed. Bronzed also will be the bayonets. But, for all these precautions, surprises—and surprises are common occurrences in war—will be much easier to effect than before. The troops attacking an advance post will do so without calling the attention of the reserves. In the same way the advance post returning fire will not be heard, most likely, by its own lines, and will fail to give the alarm. The side that first receives the fire will suffer a serious disadvantage, for some time must elapse before it can ascertain whence comes the attack, and the forces belonging to either side, though they may not be two miles distant, will know nothing of the skirmish.

In consequence of the absence of smoke, and partial silence, reconnoitring will be arduous in future campaigns, and will necessitate a greater and a better-trained number of men than heretofore. Aerostats will not play such a part in tactics as the many military trials had prepared us to expect. According to far-seeing officers, the idea is to utilize captive balloons only for short and temporary ascensions in order to ascertain the position of the enemy before the attacks; also, in the defence of forts and cities, to mark the site of the besieging batteries. The observer's view is not so extended after all: for a balloon not to run too great risks of being hit, the enemy must at least be at a distance of 5,000 yards. Then, if it rises to 600 yards, the observer cannot overlook any small obstacles existing 600 or 700 yards behind the first limit of 5,000; in other words, a battery may remain unperceived by a man in a balloon at a distance of less than six kilometres. The virtue of this experiment has been tested from the top of the Eiffel Tower. The view reaches very far—as far as the hills of Normandy around Rouen; yet a battery filing under cover of an undulation in the landscape just outside of the gates of Paris could not be seen.

Owing to the distance that two armies will preserve during the preliminaries of a combat, cavalry will be intrusted with the perilous honor of getting information—perilous because a mounted troop is not easily kept out of sight, and the chances are against its being the first to perceive a well-intrenched advance post. For the rest, the rôle of cavalry will be greatly curtailed; the future charge without the protection of smoke to cover its advance is looked upon as problematic. Even in late wars the increased improvement in quick-loading arms had diminished its efficacy.

The results of the new powder in what concerns infantry are doubtful, they depend so much on the quality of troops. As long as well ambushed, the fusilier will be a myth—firing at 600 yards, his shots will neither be seen nor heard. If he has a good view of his adversary, he can make a better percentage on his shooting than he has ever done. But his rôle in battle is not to remain stationary. He must advance and show himself. No longer protected by a cloud of smoke, he will have to face a fusillade tenfold more appalling than that of any previous battle-field: then what will remain of the teachings of his chiefs that to show heels is certain death?

Here is another problem. Artillery gains everything by operating in a clear field. Before, it worked blindfolded, as it were; the enemy's smoke served as aim, and it was often a very deceiving one. Now the exact position of the opposed artillery will be visible unless exceptionally sheltered by some natural defence. With even chances, when once a battery has attained precision in its aim—which before could but imperfectly be determined on account of smoke—it will serve as a guide to the neighboring batteries, and thus the fire will be concentrated and more effective. Again, the men serving a battery will be more apt to follow calmly the commands of the captain when there is no smoke and less noise. But in that artillery duel considerations of shelter will have to be reconciled with those regarding a favorable offensive position, instead of being held secondary according to present theories, for reckless exposure will be equivalent to seeking death. Considering that artillery will be the mainspring in future wars, it will have to make the most of its power; its influence will often decide the day.

With all this perfecting of the mechanism of war, the question to be solved is if the soldier will become the perfect workman he is expected to be in order to make use of the tools destined for him. The consideration is purely psychologic, and modern theorists admit it. Now, will the soldiers' morale stand the comparatively normal atmosphere of future battle-fields? Without forcing the note, as some writers do who speak of a verdant country where no noise is heard, where nothing stirs, but out of which death is belched through invisible cannon and guns (simple physical laws are opposed to this uncanny conception of a silence so deep and invisibility so complete), it must be granted that with shooting at long range there will be perplexity in the apparent emptiness of the field. This uncertainty will have limits; but to what extent the soldier's nerves will be tried when, the stimulating excitement of smoke and noise failing, he will be more keenly alive to the horrors of the battle, is a question that without actual experience no knowledge of humanity can answer.

Such were the martial hypotheses I was ruminating among the first lilacs in a flower market as I reëntered Paris, when a man offered me a small handbill, pale-green, the color of hope. On one side a few lines set forth the European military debt, nineteen millions a day. On the other, a dove, bearing an olive branch, soared above the exhortation: "Paix entre les Peuples! Arbitrage International!"

LECOCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

AT SAINT HELENA.

U. S. S. *Pensacola*,
ASCENSION, March 16, 1890.

ARRIVED to-day—nearly a week out from Saint Helena, under sail all the way, and another ideal voyage. Here it is a pleasure to see H. M. S. *Archer* again, that good ship looking much like our own *Yorktown*, and having been the welcome bearer of our mails at Cape Ledo on the African coast, when visiting her sister ship, H. M. S. *Bramble*, attending upon the English Eclipse Expedition. Here, too, at Ascension, we find Admiral Wells, R. N., in his splendid flag-ship the *Raleigh*, but recently returned from Delagoa Bay. In a few days, however, the American frigate will be the sole occupant of the little bay off Georgetown, as it is named (or Garrison, as it is always called), for both H. M. SS. *Raleigh* and *Archer* are only temporarily here, on their way to Saint Helena. Meanwhile, pending certain naval evolutions, the instruments of the Expedition cannot go ashore, and we have excellent opportunity to view from our ship the Admiralty's stronghold of the South Atlantic.

Outwardly Ascension much resembles Saint Helena, in being an island of exceptional beauty—the beauty of sheer desolation, that is. Ascension seems positively innocent of verdure. I should not have supposed it possi-

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ble that anything could appear more desolate than the frowning exterior of Saint Helena, but it is. At Ascension you see absolutely nothing but smooth, brown volcanic hills and rough black "clinker" plains. The little fortified town of Garrison, neatly kept, and with never an unused structure, makes the surrounding desolation seem even more desolate. Every now and then, as the cloud-cap on the distant summit of Green Mountain rises a trifle, you can see that there is after all on the island a suggestion of something green; but you cannot make out for sure whether it is vegetation or only a greenish rock of some kind or other. However, after the charming disappointment afforded by the interior of Saint Helena, I prudently reserve judgment on Ascension.

I might send columns about Saint Helena, but there is no time, and readers would be even less, I fancy; for pretty much everything about this far-famed isle has been said that can be said, except that there is yet much room for competent writing of its scientific history. In particular the geology has yet to be completed on which Charles Darwin, more than a half-century ago, made so thorough a beginning in his 'Geological Observations.' In later years, Capt. Oliver, R. A., did excellent work. Geologically, Saint Helena is volcanic hodge-podge; and a visit to certain portions of its rocky desert is, I dare say, as good as a trip to the moon. To the geologist who loves hard work, it must be a perfect paradise—no end of clambering up hill and down dale; in fact, if you are anywhere in Saint Helena, and want to go anywhere else, you have to go either up hill or down. The Sandy Bay region, regarded as the site of an ancient volcanic crater, was to me the most instructive geologically. I have never seen the effects of processes geogonic anywhere more definitely marked. Dykes there were, running in every direction—crosswise, in and out—in the plainest confusion, but even an astronomer could see that they must be dykes.

But any one seeing only Jamestown and Longwood, Napoleon's exile home, and that marvellous crater through which the road winds down to Sandy Bay, sees Saint Helena only in part. Other regions there are—the official residence of the Governor, known as "Plantation"; Oak Bank, the residence of the Bishop; and "The Briars," famous because Napoleon liked it and first lived there on arriving at Saint Helena; and in these and many other localities nature perpetually sustains a lavish wealth of verdure, tropic and sub-tropic. But I leave this for poets to tell about. None, however, can put it more beautifully or appropriately than did Saint Helena's best-known resident, good Lady Ross, who said to me, "Our island is an emerald set in bronze."

The entomology of Saint Helena was well done by Wollaston long years ago, and the botany is excellently presented by Melliss, whose large treatise (London, 1875) on this many-sided isle of the mid-South Atlantic is in many respects most admirable. As everybody knows, Saint Helena has been a favorite spot for the visits of scientific men from time immemorial. Naturalists in abundance, of course; but workers in exact science in ample number also, beginning with the distinguished Edmund Halley, who when only twenty came to the island in 1676, built an observatory on a ridge near the present road to Longwood—a spot still known as Halley's Mount, and distinctly visible as a ruin of walls overgrown with bushes. Here it was that Halley stayed two years, collecting observations of precision for a catalogue of the stars of the southern skies, and observing the transit of Mercury in November of the year after his arrival.

I had little idea that there were so many localities of scientific interest in Saint Helena until Prof. Abbe handed me just now a list of a score and a half, which I shall print in Bulletin No. 13 of the Expedition. Of course a few of these are prominently known, as, for instance, Johnson's observatory on Ladder Hill, occupied in 1823-'34 for purposes of stellar observations, published in 1835 by the Honorable East India Company; and by Dr. David Gill, now Astronomer Royal at Cape Town, who, in 1877, en route for Ascension to determine the parallax of the sun by east and west observations of Mars at its apposition that year, made the site of Johnson's observatory the base of his determination of the longitude of Ascension. Perhaps equally well known is the station of Foster's gravimetric work in 1829-'30, repeated by Mr. Preston of our Expedition, who has swung a pair of Peirce pendulums in the judges' room of the Court-house, adjoining the Castle at Jamestown, and has further extended the survey by an independent determination at Longwood. There, by the kind courtesy of Gov. Antrobus of Saint Helena, and Monsieur Morilleau, Guardian of the Napoleonic Possessions in the Island, the gravity apparatus was all mounted and used in the Longwood New House, still building for Napoleon's occupancy at the time of his death in 1821. A better station for these delicate instruments than the unoccupied kitchen of this spacious residence could hardly have been found; in fact, at all the places where the pendulums have so far been swung, Mr. Preston has been singularly fortunate in chancing upon observing apartments where accidental variations of temperature, the bane of gravity-work, were practically nil. The kitchen floor at Longwood, of stone, was complete, excepting two large flags taken up years ago and sent to Washington for incorporation into the national monument.

Hardly less known is Lefroy's significant work, begun just a half-century ago, and maintained almost ten years, at the Saint Helena Magnetic Observatory, whose site adjoins Longwood New House. The building is now an inn, known as "Bagley's," and in the large room at the left on entering may still be seen marks in the floor, evidently where the instrument-piers stood.

Among other localities remarked by Professor Abbe in his interesting Bulletin are those occupied by Maskelyne and Waddington (1761), John MacDonald (1796), Admiral Duperry (1832), and Captain Sir James Clarke Ross, commanding the *Erebus*, and Captain Crozier, commanding the *Terror*, in their celebrated Antarctic voyage (1840). That Saint Helena will continue to be visited in the future by scientific and other workers goes without saying: its equable temperature, its healthful climate, the beauty of its scenery, its association with historic names, and its situation quite unique, all combine to make it a spot of rare attractiveness.

Quite as I surmised in organizing the Expedition with a department of meteorology included, results have been reached which are full of interest, and have important bearing on marine meteorology not only, but on land weather also. I can readily see that this department of the Expedition might easily have been less fruitful, had I been obliged to place it in charge of one knowing the literature and methods of his science less fully than Prof. Abbe. From a preliminary memorandum of his results, I collate here and there a paragraph.

I think I have previously alluded to his "nephoscope," specially constructed for this Expedition. Prof. Abbe has elaborated a method for its use in determining the actual height and velocity of clouds by combining observations made when the vessel or observer moves successively in two different directions, or with two different velocities; and he calls this the "aberration method," to distinguish it from ordinary parallax methods. His main work has been a determination of the motions of the atmosphere from a study of the lowest winds and the successive strata of clouds; and, to this end, he has maintained daily observations with the nephoscope at sea, and when possible on shore. The visible clouds, he concludes, give little or no information as to the motions of the atmosphere in the widest sense, but prove that the atmosphere is everywhere divided into local systems of currents, so that we have winds circling around a storm-centre, a high barometer, an ocean, or a continent; and, at least in the Atlantic, have no winds that circulate exactly as they would do on a rotating, uniform, smooth globe. The angles of inflow and outflow have been determined for three or four successive strata of air in mid-Atlantic; also the relations of the cloud-appearances to distant storms, squalls, rains, and changes of wind, with such accuracy that on many occasions predictions of such phenomena have been made and verified.

At Fayal the phenomena of the "hood" over Pico were observed to be the same as those at Mount Washington and in other familiar instances. Pico will be remembered as the symmetric cone rising from the island of like name to a height approaching 8,000 feet. It is perhaps the most striking natural object in the Azores, and its likeness to Japan's great sacred mountain Fuji-san is often remarked—though only a miniature Fuji of course. As Prof. Abbe says, a mountain obstructs the lower wind, and thus forms a scud cumulus (or cumulus whose ascending currents are due to obstructed wind rather than to heat). These cumulus currents themselves obstruct the wind at higher levels, and so it is pushed up, flows without forming discontinuous eddies, and thus forms the hood or arched cloud. The hood will form on the very peak if the air below the summit is calm, and the air below the peak itself can be considered as a small obstacle to a gentle current at its level. With favoring conditions, beautiful hoods form over ordinary cumulus clouds: it is simply necessary that the upward deflection of the disturbed rectilinear motion shall be so gentle as not to introduce sudden curves and eddies.

At San Vicente, Cape Verdes, the cirrus clouds were shown to have a local origin, while at Freetown, Sierra Leone, a study of the "arched squalls" showed that they, the African "tornado," and the afternoon thunderstorm of the Eastern United States have the same nature and are governed by like laws, while they differ only in degree. At Elmina, on the Gold Coast, the *Harmattan* was taken up and shown to be dry wind flowing from the interior of Africa at its winter season, with a deflection to the right, and bringing the ashes of local bush fires in the interior, commonly known as "dust from the desert." The whole phenomenon is perfectly analogous to the flow of dry, cold air from Canada over the Rocky Mountain slope and southeastward across the United States; also, the *Bora* of Russia and the *Pampero* of South America have a like physical origin.

At Cape Ledo, our eclipse station on the west coast and about 300 miles below the mouth of the Congo, Professor Abbe had extraordinary

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chances to investigate the cirrus; it was a daily experience to observe large cumuli ascend bodily, lose their flat bottoms, become pear or balloon-shaped, and then spread out into fields of beautiful cirrus streaks and cirro-cumuli. The highest cirrus clouds were found to belong to a local horizontal circulation, near the sea-coast, whose range was between the limits fifty miles east and west of the coast-line. At Loanda the phenomena of Cape Ledo were repeated, and Prof. Abbe presented to the Meteorological Observatory there a nephoscope similar to his own, securing the promise of regular cloud-observations with it. There are several meteorological observatories in Angola, and from their records Prof. Abbe will compile improved meteorological notes for our 'Sailing Directions' along the African Coast.

At Cape Town, the clouds on Table Mountain afforded remarkable illustrations, under novel circumstances, of important principles in meteorology and fluid motions; the winds and clouds were studied day by day from the Royal Observatory, and a system of deep-earth temperatures was initiated within the tunnel of the new aqueduct.

At Saint Helena, Prof. Abbe determined barometrically the altitude of many points as a basis for contours on Lieut. Palmer's excellent map of the island; and his attention being drawn to "the rollers," he concluded arrangements for a record, as complete as possible, of past observations of these unusual phenomena, and for future observations as well, in the hope of definitely ascertaining their source and the laws governing their recurrence. Rain at the island essentially depends on the trade wind, varying with its variations. Accordingly all the old rain-fall records were collected, and arrangements made for new ones on a scale so large that Prof. Abbe expects to derive from their discussion a better view of the general variation in the trades than can be obtained from the records of vessels merely. In addition to that, Governor Antrobus will make an effort to secure a permanent meteorological observatory on Saint Helena, a step whose importance can hardly be overestimated, if we fully regard the extraordinary geographic position of the island.

But enough of meteorology for now. Soon the pendulums will be swinging in Garrison, meteorological work will be under way from the summit of Cross Hill, the naturalists will be traversing the island forth and back; later the gravity instruments will be transported to the high-level station near the top of Green Mountain, and within a fortnight afterwards, the 8th of April, most likely, the *Pensacola* will again be homeward bound. Barbados should be in sight by the 3d of May, and Sandy Hook a month later. DAVID P. TODD.

Correspondence.

AN ODOROUS COMPARISON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Goschen has just laid before Parliament the annual budget. He shows that the estimate of expenditure made a year ago of eighty-six millions of pounds has been exceeded by £116,000, *or less than one-seventh of 1 per cent.* The revenue has exceeded the estimate by about 4 per cent., or £3,221,000, and he proceeds at once to dispose of this surplus as follows:

Barracks for soldiers	£300,000
Volunteers	100,000
Colonial and Indian postage	80,000
Release of duties on plate	200,000
Release of duties on tea	£1,200,000
Release of duties on currants (in consideration of concessions made by Greece on British exports).	210,000
Release of beer duties to local finances	386,000
Release of house duties	540,000
Leaving a balance for contingencies of	205,000
	£3,221,000

In other words, every reduction, except possibly the small duties on gold and silver plate, is made in the interest of the mass of consumers who have no special influence, and not in that of powerful private and local combinations, which might be expected to exert such influence.

Let us now turn to another picture, the figures for which I take from a leading daily paper, the only authority that I know of from which anything can be learned. Mr. Windom estimates the revenue for the next year in round numbers at 385 millions and the expenditures at 341 millions, leaving the pretty liberal margin of 44 millions, or nearly 12 per cent. It would be the height of impertinence (or rather of futility) for Mr. Windom to suggest either a disposition of the surplus or a mode of reduction of the revenue. And so, taking the side of revenue only, there comes a certain Mr. McKinley—of whom probably not one per cent. of the people of the United States ever heard the name or know where he comes from, who derives his reputation from the Tariff Bill, not the Tariff Bill from him (just as Mr. Mills did a year ago), who has no authority whatever, but is wholly dependent upon his Committee and the House—and prepares a tariff bill which, he says, would reduce the revenue by 71 millions, though as to whether it would or not there is not the slightest responsible evidence. If so, however, it would make a rather violent change from a surplus of 44 millions to a deficit of 27 millions. Whether it would or not must depend wholly upon expenditure, over which Mr. McKinley and his Committee have no control, but which belongs to another committee apparently not even represented by a Mr. McKinley, but wholly anonymous. It seems to be assumed that this Committee will stop the payment of 40 millions to the sinking fund, which would cause another bounce to a surplus of 21 millions. "Not much," as the paper referred to sadly observes, "but enough if the party in power chooses to live within the estimates."

It seems, however, that the party in power had no such idea. Mr. Windom's estimate for pensions is 98½ millions. The House has already voted 146 millions for pensions, and has at least one other bill favorably reported for 7 millions. Taking the first figures only, they would swallow up the 21 millions of surplus and leave 26 millions of deficit. Mr. Windom's estimate for river and harbor improvements is 12 millions. The House bill gives 21 millions, which would add 9 millions to the deficit, and make it 35 millions. Mr. Windom made no estimate for public buildings, but House and Senate together have passed or reported 25 millions' worth, which would make the deficit 60 millions, while if by any chance the bill to stop the sinking fund should fail to pass, the deficit would be over 100 millions.

It may be said that these things will not be done. Perhaps not; but nobody can say which will and which will not, or whether the close of the fiscal year will see us with twenty-five millions of surplus or deficit, while over all hangs the dark cloud, with almost equal uncertainty of its descent, of unlimited silver inflation. That is the sum of our system of finance.

What is the difference between the two? Simply and solely this, that in Great Britain the whole matter is left to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, acting upon his responsibility as a national official, while Parliament limits itself to approval or rejection of his measures. In this country no individual and no national authority has anything to do with the finances, which are left in sections to jarring and impersonal committees of local representatives, pulled about by private, local, and party interests of every description. So much is certain, that if we expect our finances to get into decent condition, we shall have to put them into the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury, and let him manage them, to some extent, at least, after the fashion of an English Chancellor of the Exchequer. G. B.

BOSTON, May 10, 1890.

CONGRESS AND THE LOTTERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

FRIEND: How happens it, while the whole religious press and every respectable daily unite in condemnation of the Louisiana Lottery, that papers are allowed to be published at the capital of the nation advertising that iniquitous scheme, and the Government mails carry those same papers everywhere, even to the remotest corner of the republic?

There lies before me the 'Capital Almanac' of forty pages, handsomely illustrated, bound in covers lavishly gilt, and bearing on its title-page, as publisher, the name of "J. S. McIntyre, Washington, D. C." This particular copy came to me from Santa Clara, California, where it was locally issued by a Spanish dealer in general merchandise (liquors especially), whose imprint is found on the under cover.

This 'Almanac' fully declares its ulterior purpose in an extended exhibit of the aforesaid lottery, prefaced by a special plea—though an extremely shallow one—for the existence of what its caption announces as "A Useful Institution." The said plea, which could only mislead those who are already very willing to be led astray, tells how possible it may be for humanity to be mistaken (did not Luther, Wesley, and Cotton Mather labor under partial delusions?), and so the outcry against the lottery may be, in fact is, a huge mistake. Evidently it is so, because, as a Bible instance, "Moses and Aaron, the greatest of lawgivers, accepted the lottery system by divine command as the most equitable for dividing the land of Canaan among the chosen of the Lord." But I need not pursue the pseudo-argument.

From Washington, D. C., also emanates a sensational story paper, *Family Fiction*, but it is in truth simply a vehicle for the advertisement of the same lottery. It is distributed in immense quantities from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Gulf to the Great Lakes.

Congress has been besought time and again to enact laws for the prevention of the publication of demoralizing sheets of the foregoing character in the District, and against their dissemination through the mails. Postmaster-General Wanamaker, in his annual report upon the assembling of the present Congress, urgently asked for legislation to stop the sending out of such matter. Two bills, at least, were introduced early this session, one to prohibit the transmission of lottery-advertisement papers through the mails, the other to stop the collecting and paying of lottery prizes through the banks and express companies. These bills were referred to a committee; why are they not acted upon? Would it have been any worse for the North Dakota Legislature to

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legalize the Louisiana Lottery than it would be for Congress to continue to protect the advertisers of the same lottery in the District of Columbia, and to allow the mails to spread their mischievous invitations and announcements far and wide over the country without let or hindrance? JOSIAH W. LEEDS.

PHILADELPHIA.

BOOK PIRACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not time to "cry halt" to the encouragement which clergymen and other reputable people seem to be giving (to judge from the circulars they receive) to the various thieves' enterprises of publishing pirates? I have this morning received (this time from Boston) the second of such recent invitations to become a party to such a piece of mean stealing. It is unblushing in its effrontery, offering "an exact fac-simile" of the "Great Edinburgh Ninth Edition" of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' "reproduced by photographic process," the only new thing being the maps.

The 'Britannica' seems to have been a particularly attractive game from the time, near the beginning of the present ninth issue, when a Philadelphia house started a reprint, and, on being brought to bay, was let off by the judge—a very Dogberry—on the richly bouffe ground that the defendant had invested such a large amount of money in his plant (burglars' kits are apt to be costly), down to the later New York venture, admitted to advertise—I was loath and grieved to believe my eyes—in my long-time standard, *sans peur et sans reproche*, in newspaper morality, the *Nation* itself.

Is it right for us to let the cheapness of the coveted goods blind our eyes to the criminality of the whole business, and to the fact that *we who buy or tolerate are parties to that criminality?* With a decent law of copyright, these people would never dare to do these things. Shall we encourage them to take advantage of the present defenceless condition of the foreign author and publisher?

Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME., May 3, 1890.

[We have never attempted to make our advertising columns a test of copyright integrity on the part of publishers, and our correspondent must perceive on reflection that we should have, on his principle, to go much further than exclude the advertisement of the pirated 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' From downright appropriation like this—a gross case, because of the enormous cost of the original work—to compensation of the foreign author at the pleasure of the American publisher, examples of want of strict justice and fair-dealing are to be found in the majority of the catalogues which make up the Trade-List Annual. This is especially true of publications before the copyright issue became a burning one as it is now. We are not, for our part, chargeable with concealing from the public the true state of affairs, or with failure to demand the most advanced legislation to remove a national disgrace.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE well-known London publisher Walter Scott has appointed A. Lovell & Co. of this city his sole agents for the United States, and they will keep a full line of his publications always in stock. They announce for May 27 three additions to his Great Writers, Canterbury Poets, and Camelot Series, respectively, viz., 'Life of Robert Browning,' by William Sharp; 'The Lady of Lyons, and Other Plays,' by Lord Lytton; and 'English Folk and Fairy Tales,' edited by E. Sidney Hartland. Messrs. Lovell announce for themselves 'Clio: A Child of Fate,' by Miss Ella M. Powell.

David Stott, London, launches this month the "Foreign Favorite Series," leading off with a translation of 'Les Caractères' of La Bruyère, by Helen Stott.

A series of small books under the general title, "Science in Plain Language," is announced by Macmillan & Co. The first volume, to be published immediately, includes the following subjects: Evolution, Antiquity of Man, Bacteria, etc. The same firm has just ready a folio volume on 'Scottish National Memorials,' with three hundred illustrations, including thirty full-page plates.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will shortly publish 'Leah of Jerusalem: A Story of the Time of Paul,' by Edward Payson Berry.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Elliptic Functions,' by Prof. Arthur L. Baker of Stevens Institute.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'Selections from Heine's Poems,' edited, with notes, by Prof. Horatio Stevens White of Cornell.

Éditions de luxe of George Eliot's 'Romola' and Victor Hugo's 'Hans of Iceland' are in the press of Estes & Lauriat, Boston. The former will contain photo-etchings of Florentine scenery; the latter likewise many illustrations of the same and other kinds.

A new work, 'Jesus of Nazareth,' by President John A. Broadus, is nearly ready for publication by A. C. Armstrong & Son.

The Salem (Mass.) Press Publishing and Printing Co. will, if the requisite support be obtained, issue in parts by subscription a 'History of the Putnam Family in England and America,' by Eben Putnam of Boston. The work will be freely illustrated.

The delightful "Temple Library," published in London by J. M. Dent & Co. and in this country by Macmillan, has just been enlarged by Landor's 'Pericles and Aspasia,' in two volumes admirably printed, bound, and illustrated. Portraits of the title personages and of Alcibiades, with one of Landor never before reproduced, and etchings of his birthplace and his villa at Fiesole, adorn the dainty pages. The editor, Mr. C. G. Crump, furnishes a model introduction, clear and succinct; and his notes of variant readings make the present edition valuable from a scholarly point of view. Inasmuch as one-half of the issue is reserved for the American market, it is a pity that Mr. Crump should have omitted the curious ode prefixed by Landor to the second volume of the original edition, in praise of Andrew Jackson. The hero of New Orleans had neither art, eloquence, nor breeding to remind one of Pericles any more than Mrs. Eaton does of Aspasia; but Landor could sing of him in this strain:

> "And where the fane of Pallas stands,
> Rear'd to her glory by his hands,
> Thou, altho' nowhere else, shalt see
> A statesman and a chief like thee."

Mr. Edmund Gosse has republished, in an attractive little volume, 'Robert Browning: Personalia' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), the article originally contributed by him to the *Century* nearly nine years ago upon the 'Early Career of Robert Browning.' This paper was written from material furnished by Browning himself in conversation, and was approved by him, and consequently is authoritative. It recounts in a pleasant narrative style the events of the poet's life until his marriage, and describes his circumstances. The more important portion is that detailing the relations between him and Macready, and the history of the performance of his plays when first written. To this paper a few "personal impressions" are appended, which appeared in the *New Review* after Browning's death.

The success of Mr. Andrew Lang's clever 'Letters to Dead Authors' arouses an expectation of amusing things in his latest experiment in "epistolary parody," which comes out under the title 'Old Friends' (Longmans, Green & Co.). The notion that contemporary characters in fiction must have sometimes met in so small a world is a fertile one, and under light treatment may be made productive of entertainment; but a less ready brain than Mr. Lang's might well hesitate to put it to the proof. The expedient of introducing our old friends of the novelists by means of letters was almost necessary, but in the letters they are made to narrate adventures of themselves in real contact with one another. A humorous turn is, of course, given to the whole. The range is broad enough to include Euphues and Herodotus, as well as Pickwick, Tom Jones, and "She." The book, however, is of the slightest in its substance, and not to be compared to the Dead Authors' collection; the humor is not of the most laughter-provoking order, and there is a lack of inventiveness in situation. The keeping of the tone and mannerisms of the characters is altogether the most commendable trait of this literary "skit," which may serve to pass an idle hour—as indeed it aims at no more.

Two little books on Mexico come to us from A. C. McClurg & Co. 'A Winter Holiday,' by Julia Newell Jackson, disarms criticism by the frank declaration in the preface that the book is only "a trifling bit of thistle-down." It consists of random notes of travel, written with a good deal of forced sprightliness which becomes rather depressing in the end. Mr. Arthur Howard Noll's 'History of Mexico' is a more serious work, being, in fact, a very convenient and accurate manual of the subject. The author has a good sense of proportion, and has made diligent use of the best authorities, though he omits to tell us who they are. His account of the French intervention will bear a little revision, but in general his work, within its limits, is correct and satisfactory. It certainly does not need the strange excuse for being, advanced by Mr. Noll—the fact, namely, that no "comprehensive history of Mexico exists in the English language."

Mrs. Hester M. Poole's 'Fruits, and How to Use Them' (Fowler & Wells) is a welcome addition to the list of cook-books. In few households is there command of an adequate variety of modes of preparing fruit for the table, though the supply itself may be, as the author points out, superabundant. Mrs. Poole gives nearly 700 recipes. She dedicates her work to the W. C. T. U., and associates it also with the vegetarian conscience when she says, somewhat naïvely, that "the shedding of blood and sacrifice of animal life, especially in the summer season, is not necessary in order to furnish a table both wholesome and attractive."

At the opposite pole from the foregoing is the "guide for amateur cooks" called 'What One Can Do with a Chafing-dish' (New York: John Ireland). Here there are some sixty recipes, but, except for "beignets de pommes" and "Warren's prune toast," fruits are completely ruled out, and vegetables are subordi-

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nate to meats. The book is well conceived and liberally got up.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, publish a second edition of 'The Moral Ideal: A Historic Study,' by Julia Wedgwood. The work is an exceedingly interesting and valuable one for general students.

The Riverside Library for young people contains a little book on 'Coal and the Coal Mines,' by Homer Green (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is prepared with greater care and with a better knowledge of the subject than one often finds indicated in juvenile books, and it contains many chapters that must interest its readers. The many difficulties that attended the introduction of anthracite coal into domestic use affords material for a number of entertaining stories; the dangers which the miners have to encounter and overcome, and the more important disasters that have occurred in our mines, are narrated in a simple but sufficiently impressive style, which serves to enliven the more matter-of-fact description of mining work in the coal regions of Pennsylvania. The preliminary geological chapters are not up to the quality of the rest of the book. A boy, in reading these earlier pages, might easily gain the idea that the author knew what is told from some other evidence than the facts here stated; whereas, it is only these facts and others of the same kind which serve as evidence to the conclusions that are given. We do not know that "the air was laden with carbon" and moisture, and therefore infer that plants grew luxuriantly; but, by reason of the luxuriant growth of coal plants, it has been inferred that the atmosphere of their time was unusually moist and carbonaceous. This kind of inverted order of statement is unfortunately common in popular scientific writing.

Mr. J. R. Elliott discusses 'American Farms; Their Condition and Future' in the "Questions of the Day Series" published by the Putnams, but we cannot say that his book throws much new light upon the subject. His treatment is rather emotional than scientific, and, while we sympathize with his motives, we do not feel that he is quite competent to deal with the difficulties of his task. The remedy for the decline of agriculture is, in the first place, "a proper and more general realization of the imperative necessity for a larger proportion of the people to be engaged in tilling the soil than at present." Then the farmers must make themselves a political force and improve the laws, abolishing "all laws which tend to engender national strife"; "which are barriers between supply and demand"; "which tend to prevent the reduction of taxes to the actual needs of the Government, and the reduction of government to the actual needs of the people"; "which prevent the placing of taxes where they should be placed"; and "which force labor to give unfair support to capital or to monopoly, creating inequality, sacrificing the true ethical spirit, which should prevail, to the wiles of scheming politicians." We fear that both parties would be only too willing to insert these planks in their platforms.

Those portions of the report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor for 1889 which have so far appeared contain very little that is noteworthy. As to cost of transportation, the returns show that the amount paid for freight is about 3 per cent. of the value of manufactured goods, but we are not at all sure that many of these payments are not reckoned twice. It will perhaps afford pleasure to some minds to learn that the annual product of the manufactories of Massachusetts would fill a train of freight-cars 958 miles long. Great labor has been expended in getting answers to the question: "Are sales decreased by the importation of foreign-made goods?" Such statistics have the same scientific value that would attach to a vote of the farmers as to the influence of the moon upon growing crops. It may, however, be of interest to politicians to learn that nearly half the answers were to the effect that sales were not decreased, while about one-sixth held that they were decreased, and that the latter answers were from the larger industries. The figures concerning foreign sales and competition are, in our judgment, quite worthless. The expedited bulletin as to the condition of employees consists principally of a republication of some portions of the Census report of 1885, and we fail to discern any satisfactory reason for hastening its appearance—if, indeed, there is any reason for its appearing at all.

We have from Johns Hopkins University a monograph, in the form of a doctor's dissertation, which deserves more extended notice than we can here give it. It is a study of the history of the Absolute Participle in Old English, by Morgan Callaway, now Professor of English in the Southwestern University, at Georgetown, Texas. Prof. Callaway first gives a complete list of all absolute constructions to be found in old English; then he discusses the history of the construction in all the Teutonic languages; next he considers the substitute constructions used in Old English in rendering the Latin absolute participle; finally, he sets down what he considers to be the stylistic effect of the construction, and in a brief summary formulates his conclusions. The treatment of the prose constructions is clear and full, and the citation of examples is apparently exhaustive. Dr. Callaway, however, leaves much to be desired in his treatment of the related poetical constructions, and we trust that he will have opportunity soon to continue the study. The monograph is a credit to American scholarship, and an indispensable aid to students of Old English grammar.

The eighth series of the Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science began with a double number, entitled 'The Beginnings of American Nationality: the Constitutional Relations between the Continental Congress and the Colonies and States from 1774 to 1789,' by President Small of Colby University. This is a methodical investigation of the documentary evidence relating to the subject, and the author's attitude of mind will much commend itself. But half the ground of the essay is covered by the present instalment. "I plead guilty," says Dr. Small, "of the large ambition to follow out this method and rescue our constitutional history from the misinterpretations of Von Holst." No. 3 of the same series is on 'Local Government in Wisconsin,' by David E. Spencer of the State University.

Prof. E. J. James of the University of Pennsylvania has translated for its Political Economy and Public Law Series the present Federal Constitution of Germany, together with a section introductory to the instrument from Von Rönne's 'Verfassung des Deutschen Reichs.'

'The History of Federal and State Aid to Higher Education' is given by Prof. Frank W. Blackmar of the University of Kansas, in Circular of Information No. 1, 1890, of the Bureau of Education at Washington. It makes a solid pamphlet of 343 pages. It leaves on one side the history of normal-school education.

With No. 19 of his 'Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age*,' Mr. Edward Roth (Philadelphia, 1135 Pine Street) concludes the section History, and gives the whole, or very nearly the whole, of Literary Criticism.

The *Unitarian Review* for May prints a paper by the late Prof. William F. Allen, read before a social literary club in Madison, Wis., on the subject of Historical Fiction. Our readers may remember a list of novels of this order which he drew up and printed some years ago as an aid to historical study, or the fostering of a love of it. The present writing was the last that he completed, and it was composed in the greatest haste. Some of its doctrine he might, and we think would, have modified on revision, but the paper is well worth reading.

From the Oxford University comes an 'Essay on the Importance of the Study of the Slavonic Languages'—where *Slavic* should rather be read than Slavonic as a general designation—by W. R. Morfill. It is, in fact, his inaugural lecture of January 25, 1890. Incidentally he depreciates Dr. Bowring's translations from Russian, Polish, Serbian, and Bohemian, saying that "unfortunately there is a want of color in all these versions, and a great sameness"; misapprehensions, too, because of following German versions.

The *Revue des Traditions Populaires* for February 15 notices a collection of twelve Rumanian melodies by G. Musicescu, transcribed for the piano, with words borrowed from divers national sources. The most of them are *chansons de danse*, some love songs, and one a striking soldiers' song. The melodies are highly praised from a musical point of view; and the *Revue* gives some specimens of them.

The Congregational Club of Boston in February last took steps to promote setting up at Delftshaven a monument to Dutch hospitality to the Pilgrims. A suitable site, at the junction of the Leyden Canal with the River Maas, has been fixed upon and can probably be secured. The Rev. William Elliot Griffis, D.D., 638 Tremont Street, Boston, is chairman of a committee to solicit subscriptions, large and small. The Treasurer is Mr. Frank Wood, 352 Washington Street, Boston.

The photographers are bestirring themselves to mark the just-passed semi-centennial of the discovery of photography by a monument to Daguerre. This undertaking appeals, of course, far more widely than to the profession itself. The Photographers' Association of America will set up the memorial in front of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington. The design by Mr. J. Scott Hartley has been severely criticised and sensibly modified, and still, we fear, does not promise much as an addition to the art products of this country.

— As the library of the British Museum overshadows every other in London, few Americans can have had their attention called to an humbler but interesting public library, namely, that of the Corporation, or the Guildhall Library of the City of London. Of this collection, which we roughly estimate at fifty or sixty thousand volumes, we have just received from Mr. Charles Welch, the Librarian, a generous catalogue of 1,137 pages in double columns. Employment of American methods would have resulted in such an economy of space as to permit a great extension of the topical arrangement, as to which we can only say that it has not been consistently carried out. For example, Mr. Percival Lowell's 'Chosön' is entered but once, under the author's name. Under Corea we are referred to China, and under China there is no mention of 'Chosön.' There is an invaluable collection of newspapers, nearly all published in London, but the *Anti-Slavery Reporter* is entered not under Newspa-

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pers, but under Slavery, and *Punch* has a separate entry. Here "*news*papers" seems to be used in a narrow sense. On the whole, the standard American literature of the past fifty years is fairly well embraced, and in the additions to June, 1889, there seems to be evidence of an effort to keep abreast of our current production; but the lacunæ are still sufficient to prompt the suggestion that Americans bear the Guildhall Library in mind as a worthy recipient of gifts from this side of the water. Not one of Fenimore Cooper's works, for example, is to be found in it, and no American statesman except Franklin is adequately represented. Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison, Calhoun, Clay, Webster are not to be found by searching. (The title Biography is confined to dictionaries.) Among the noticeable features of the library are the almanacs, Bibles, catalogues, and directories; works pertaining to the several London guilds; and the collections of the various societies, such as the Camden, Harleian, Hakluyt, Percy, Early English Text, English Dialect, and Christian Knowledge, all whose publications are minutely set forth. Corresponding lists of great utility are those of William Andrews's 'North Country Poets,' Cimber and Danjou's 'Archives Curieuses de l'histoire de France,' Jeffrey's 'Contributions to the *Edinburgh Review*,' Leon Levi's 'Annals of British Legislation,' the Lilburne Tracts, John Nicol's 'Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica,' etc. We will add that no introductions are required on the part of readers at this library, from which, however, books are not allowed to be taken.

—An appeal has been made in Boston, signed by Phillips Brooks and other prominent clergymen and laymen of that city, on behalf of Atlanta University. This institution is a Northern foundation. It exists primarily for the higher education, as teachers and mechanics, of the colored population of the South, but it does not turn away students because they happen to be white. For this reason it is now under the ban of the State, which has withdrawn its annual subvention until the University authorities consent to establish and maintain the color line. This action has seriously crippled and may prove fatal to the institution, unless it receive efficient aid from American philanthropy. Every intelligent observer knows, who witnesses this conflict, that the State's attitude logically implies contempt of and aversion to white persons who engage in teaching the blacks; and, as a matter of fact, we believe that the instructors at the University have been socially disregarded even to the point of non-recognition on the street, and even by professed friends of the University (such as the late H. W. Grady) before it had incurred the enmity of the Legislature. This body would fain have made co-education a felony, in the spirit of Southern law and custom which denounces with fine, imprisonment, and illegitimacy, voluntary intermarriage of white and black. This is the real "Southern problem," and one that can no more be discussed on the spot than abolition could in the ante-bellum days. The Atlanta University was not founded to raise or to force the issue, but it has, by a simple observance of Christian and democratic American principles, called attention to the repudiation of these by its persecutors. The Treasurer of the Boston Committee is Mr. William Lloyd Garrison, who may be addressed at No. 132 Federal Street.

—Sir Robert Stawell Ball, F.R.S., royal astronomer of Ireland, is known to many readers in this country as the author of a most poetic lecture on the relations of the earth and moon, entitled "A Glimpse through the Corridors of Time," reprinted in the *Popular Science Monthly* and *Littell's Living Age* some ten years ago. His ability in popularizing astronomical subjects is again shown in 'Star Land' (Cassell & Co.), a little book for young people on the wonders of the heavens, based on a series of lectures delivered in London at the Royal Institution of Great Britain in the Christmas season of 1887, to a juvenile audience. The style is simple and the explanatory illustrations are ingenious and well chosen. For example, the relative strength of gravitation upon the earth and the moon is brought home by picturing a man standing on the earth, bent down under the weight of a heavy sack of grain on his back, while the same man on the moon is able to carry six sacks of the same size. The difficulties against which old Kepler had to contend when he was trying to make out the orbit of Mars are illustrated by recalling the belief then prevalent that the planets must move in circles because circles were the only perfect curves. No imperfections had then been detected in the planetary motions, no spots had then been discovered on the sun. A number of interesting methods are employed to give some conception of the vast distance of the stars. One of the most ingenious is the account of that part of human history that would only now reach the stars if it were carried on rays of light. The light arriving now from the earth to the nearer stars would show Great Britain in a state of excitement over the coronation of a youthful Queen, whom we know as Queen Victoria, fifty years on the throne. There are other stars from which the inhabitants could now see, if they had good enough telescopes, a mighty battle going on not far from Brussels. On yet other stars, the light would only now arrive which left the earth at the signing of the Magna Charta; and even these are not the farthest from us. All this is pleasant and instructive reading. The woodcuts are generally good and correct, and the book would serve well as side reading for a young class in astronomy.

—Dr. F. J. Furnivall, in a letter which he writes to the *Academy* of April 19, puts forth in a very compact form the results of his researches as to the ancestry of Robert Browning. He rejects, with his habitual promptness of decision, the "myth" that the poet was connected in some way with the Obadiah Browning of 1689, and with the Captain that commanded Henry V.'s ship. These were only namesakes annexed to cover the poet's humble origin. He then goes on:

"His first forefather, that we know of, Robert I., was head butler, doubtless after being footboy and footman, to Sir J. Bankes, at Corfe Castle, Dorsetshire. Robert's brother Thomas was tenant of an inn—Woodyates Inn—in a very small hamlet of Dorsetshire, under Lord Shaftesbury, in whose family he may well have been a servant. At any rate, Robert I.'s son, Thomas II., succeeded Thomas I. in the tenancy of Woodyates Inn, and was the greatgrandfather of the poet. Robert I.'s wife, Elizabeth, could not sign her name to her will; and her grandson, Robert II.'s son, was apprenticed to a stone mason at Wimborne. Lord Shaftesbury, as the landlord of Thomas II., got his son Robert III., the poet's grandfather, into the Bank of England. There the poet's father, Robert IV. (a half creole) was a clerk also, and was a versatile, clever fellow. The rise of the family is a creditable one from the ranks; and it is a pity to try and tack it on to noteworthy namesakes who have nothing to do with it."

The editor of the *Academy* appends a note to Dr. Furnivall's letter to say that the word "creole" which appears in it is not to be taken in its strict sense, as meaning one born of European blood in the West Indies, but is to be understood (as the word is commonly and incorrectly used) as connoting a mixed negro parentage. Dr. Furnivall's paper on Browning's ancestry, with wills, extracts from registers, and so on, may be had, he says, by sending 3d. and an addressed stamped wrapper to Clay & Sons, Bread-Street-Hill, London, E. C., and mentioning that the application is made in consequence of his letter in the *Academy*.

—The latest accession to the Bohn Goethe (London, George Bell & Sons; New York, Scribner & Welford) is a volume containing "Reineke Fuchs," the "Divan," and the "Achilleid," all translated by Mr. Alexander Rogers, a gentleman who seems to be neither a very cunning versifex nor a very great German scholar. He remarks benignly of Goethe's hexameters that they "are as good as they can be expected to be in a language that lends itself to this particular metre but little better than our own." How well "our own" lends itself to Mr. Rogers in his less strenuous moments can be seen from this specimen: "Searched through a mill and the miller's wife was asleep, softly." At the beginning of the "Divan" one finds this bit of translation and commentary:

"There, pure and right, where still they find,
Will I drive all mortal kind
To the great depths whence all things rise,
There still to gain, in godly wise,
Heaven's lore in earthly speech,
Heads might break ere they could reach."

On reading this we were struck by its nebulousness, and guessed that the translator must have been struggling with something very obscure—a guess that seemed to be confirmed when we read this foot-note to the last line: "'Und sich nicht den Kopf zerbrachen.' Strangely put in the past tense (whereas the present is used in the first part of the sentence) in order to rhyme with *Erdensprachen*." This sent us to the original, where we found this simple stanza, which we should suppose that any well-taught sophomore would be able to construe and to understand (the "Dort" means the Orient, where Goethe had intellectually taken refuge from the turbulent politics of his own time):

"Dort im Reinen und im Rechten
Will ich menschlichen Geschlechten
In des Ursprungs Tiefe dringen,
Wo sie noch von Gott empfingen
Himmelslehr' in Erdesprachen,
Und sich nicht den Kopf zerbrachen."

—The publication of the fourth part of the 'Bibliographie générale et raisonée du droit belge,' by Edmond Picard and Ferdinand Larcier (Brussels: F. Larcier, 1890), completes this useful bibliography of the legal literature of Belgium. The printing of the work commenced in 1882, and the alphabet of authors, numbering 6,786 titles, was brought to an end in the third part, having filled 870 octavo pages. The present part contains (1) a list of anonymous books and articles, (2) a catalogue of legal periodicals, and (3) a supplement, comprising the titles of all the law books issued from the press of Belgium during the printing of the catalogue, to October, 1889. This supplement adds 1,122 titles to the alphabet of authors, making the grand total nearly eight thousand. About two-thirds of this number would represent the actual books and pamphlets relating to law printed in this little country since 1814—a remarkable record, which, we think, only a few of the great nations of the world could surpass.

—The bibliography of journals deserves special mention. It is not a mere list, but a careful bibliographical record of some hundred and thirty legal and statistical journals published in Belgium. Under the rubrics, "Mode of Publication," "Editing and Printing," "Col-

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lection" (*i. e.*, number of volumes, etc.), we get the whole history of each journal, including a notice of any index or indexes which may have been published; while in many cases, also, under the additional heading of "Anonymous Contributions," there is printed a list of the unsigned articles upon law subjects which have appeared in the journal. Some of these periodicals deserve to have a reputation outside of Belgium, such as *Pasinomie*, which publishes all the laws and decrees, and contains in its ninety-one volumes a complete chronological collection of Belgian and French laws from 1788 to the present time. A somewhat similar publication, *Pasicrisie*, gives the decisions of the courts, including those of the courts of France, and now numbers, with its digests and indexes, about 280 volumes. Another fine work, published in periodical parts, is 'Pandectes belges: Encyclopédie de législation, de doctrine et de jurisprudence belge.' It is formed upon the plan of the well-known 'Jurisprudence belge' of Dalloz, and has required twenty-seven quarto volumes to cover the first three letters of the alphabet.

ADAMS'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF JEFFERSON.—II.

History of the United States of America during the Second Administration of Thomas Jefferson. By Henry Adams. Vols. III. and IV. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

It has been already said that Florida was the key of Jefferson's politics in the early stages of his second term. The French Emperor indulged in a long dalliance with our Government under this head, using Florida as the lever of his diplomatic movements, now against the United States and now against Spain. After the overthrow of the Prussian Army at Jena, on the 14th of October, 1806, the dalliance came to an end, and was followed by sharp measures of coercion brought to bear on the United States as a neutral Power. The Berlin Decree, "which cut the roots of neutral rights and of American commerce," was launched on the 21st of November, 1806, and thus was joined that long triangular duel, in which the United States was doomed to stand under the fire of both England and France without being able to reply to the fire of either. The quarrel between the two great European protagonists had reached that stage of violence which, in the phrase of Thucydides, "assimilates the passions of men to the conditions of the moment." Hence it was that fury ministered arms to each, without the slightest regard to the interests or rights of nations which wished to be neutral spectators of the strife.

As early as August 17, 1805, the direct trade of neutrals with the colonies of France had been placed under restriction by a British order in council. Then followed the blockade of the Ems, Weser, etc., on the 8th of April, 1806, to be soon succeeded by the blockade of the whole coast from the Elbe to Brest. In the spring of 1805, our Congress had passed a non-importation act, if haply by so doing we might fatigue both belligerents into a respect for our neutral rights—"a dose of chicken-broth," as John Randolph sneeringly called it, and this, too, a "dose" which was to be taken nine months after its prescription; for the law was not to go into effect till the 15th of November. The pusillanimity of our public measures at this crisis, whatever may have been the justification for it in the hard necessities of our political situation, had now begun to react on the tone and temper of the national character. "The great issues of 1776 and of 1787," says Mr. Adams, "had dwindled into disputes whether robbery and violence should be punished by refusing to buy millinery and hardware from the robbers, and whether an unsuccessful attempt to purloin foreign territory should be redeemed by bribing a more powerful nation to purloin it at second hand." Englishmen, on the other hand, says Mr. Adams, "listened with as much contempt as anger to the American theory that England must surrender at discretion if Americans should refuse any longer to buy woollen shirts and tin kettles. Englishmen asked only whether Americans would fight, and they took some pains to make inquiries on that point; but it happened that of all the points in question, this, which to Englishmen was alone decisive, could be answered in a syllable: No! America would not fight. The President, Congress, the press of both parties in the United States agreed only in this particular."

While the Administration at this juncture, in common with the whole American people, was staggering under an intolerable burden of difficulty and weltering in a bottomless Slough of Despond, Monroe, our Minister at London, was set to the impossible task of wresting from Great Britain a treaty which should require that country to repudiate the right and renounce the practice of impressment, to restore our trade with the French colonies to its old footing, and to pay a round indemnity for unlawful captures made under the rulings of Sir William Scott. From the toils of such impossible conditions there was no escape for Monroe except by breaking through them. This he did. He put his name to a treaty drawn up in violation of his instructions, and a treaty, besides, which was rendered nugatory and worthless by an explanatory note of the British negotiators, who formally signified to Monroe and Pinkney that the treaty was to pass for nothing unless the American Government, before ratification, should give security that it would not recognize the Berlin decree! By signing the treaty with that condition, Monroe, the "Gallican" sympathizer of 1794, did his best to commit the United States to war with France and alliance with England.

Jefferson rejected the treaty without even submitting it to the Senate. He was abundantly justified in so doing, but the act cost him dear in the turbulent politics of that day. The Federalists charged that the treaty had been rejected because of its anti-Gallican tendencies, and they pointed to the mode of its rejection as a specimen of autocracy which Jefferson had braved in the interest of France, and in imitation of the imperial despot who was then giving law to all the world—except England. A little later it need not surprise us if we find Timothy Pickering offering his celebrated toast: "The world's last hope: Britain's fast-anchored isle."

From this time forth the triangular duel of which we have spoken gathered fresh virulence from the increasing ferocity of the European belligerents. The policy of impressment was pushed to its last extremity of outrage and oppression. At this late day, when our Government exults with only too much gayety of heart in its pride of place among the nations of the earth, it is difficult for the ordinary reader to measure the contempt in which our country was held by Great Britain during the Administration of Jefferson, or to hear without a tingling of the ears a recital of the indignities to which our flag was subjected on the high seas. The head and front of British offending was found in the impressment of our seamen, under color of the pretension that many of our seamen were "deserters" from the British service, or that, under the doctrine of indefeasible allegiance, many of our seamen were British subjects whom England had a right to reclaim whenever she found them at sea in an American merchant vessel. Hence the assumed right of search so long maintained by England and resisted by the United States. While doing full justice to the enormity of the British pretension, Mr. Adams, we believe, nowhere gives a precise statement of the proportions which the impressment outrage had assumed in its relation to the actual personnel of the American marine. Early in 1808, Mr. Madison reported that over four thousand American seamen had then made reclamations, through the Department of State, for their release from involuntary detention in the British naval or mercantile service. And this number takes no account of sailors captured on the Spanish Main, but not yet reported, or of sailors who, from death or helplessness, had made no sign. The recklessness with which impressment was practised may be read in the fact that one-fourth of those who had been kidnapped by British cruisers were admitted, on inquiry by the British Government, to have been wrongfully seized, and were ultimately released, but without apology or reparation.

The impressment outrage came to the acme of national insult and oppression in the well-known case of the *Leopard* in its attack on the *Chesapeake*. The right of search was here asserted against a public armed vessel of the United States, and was accompanied with an insolence as grievous to the national honor as the violence practised towards an unresisting ship was wounding to the national pride. If Jefferson had been anxious to precipitate a war with England, as the Federalists charged, the "*Leopard* incident" gave him more than the opportunity he was supposed to covet; for, as the news of the outrage spread, the whole country made a show of willingness to spring to arms. But the hard necessities of the political situation proved too strong for even this patriotic outburst, and the national honor soon ran to cover under the "resorts of a peaceful diplomacy." The story of the *Leopard* is not pleasant reading for either an Englishman or an American at the present day; for the country of each may well be ashamed of its attitude—England for the attitude she took by choice, and the United States for the attitude it took by compulsion.

It was the cruel dilemma of Jefferson at this juncture that he could neither make war with effectiveness nor conduct diplomacy with dignity. The civil sneers of Canning were as hard to bear as the rough epistles which Admiral Berkeley wrote with his marlingspike. Fresh from personal mixture in the humiliations imposed by the *Leopard* on the people of Norfolk, Littleton Waller Tazewell, Republican, as he was, denounced Jefferson as a *fainéant* ruler equally incapable of keeping peace or making war. But in all this hurly-burly of impotent rage and bitterness, Jefferson maintained a serenity of spirit, because he believed himself able to draw from the arsenal of his "Quaker politics" a mode of defence better than war. The embargo and the gun-boat system of harbor defence had long rested in his mind as the "cheap defence" of a nation situated like the American republic. The nation was now brought to the brink of choosing between war or embargo, and, war being clearly impossible, the alternative choice was inevitable in his eyes. The embargo had been an old cuirass in our national armory. When war with England was imminent, in 1794, an embargo for thirty

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days had been instituted by Congress for the protection of our seamen and ships, but not, as John Adams has explained, with any expectation that it would influence the conduct of England. In its very theory it was of temporary duration, but Jefferson conceived the embargo as a weapon of permanent offence for the coercion of the belligerent Powers of Europe. He was willing to stake his reputation as a political philosopher on the success or failure of this new device in the applied art of statesmanship.

The British orders in council of January 7, 1807, commonly known as Lord Howick's orders, had interdicted neutral trade from port to port in France. This order was issued in alleged retaliation for the Berlin Decree, and had passed without much animadversion from our mercantile and shipping community. The Republicans professed themselves unable to account for this supineness, except on the assumption that our merchants, being mostly Federalists, were quick to resent the injuries of France, while bearing with habitual indifference the injuries of England. But the real explanation lay on the surface. France was powerless at sea, and could be scolded with impunity as the would-be brigand who had angered England into measures of "retaliation." England swept the seas with her cruisers, and had to be coaxed where she could not be cowed. The Administration itself, while blaming this mercantile subserviency, could but imitate it.

The "awful tragedy at Copenhagen"—the bombardment of the city and the capture of the Danish Navy—now came to emphasize the fact that "neutrals would be no longer tolerated." The same fact was soon emphasized by Napoleon at Lisbon. The Berlin Decree, which had long slept as a dead letter, was suddenly put in force by the French Emperor during the same early days of September which had witnessed the fall of Copenhagen. When "Copenhagen" Jackson came to our country as British Minister, in 1809, it was openly announced in the *National Intelligencer* that he came to us "red from the flames of Copenhagen and flushed with the blood of the persecuted Danes." It was seen at once that America's "turn" would come next. Reports reached Washington that "countervailing orders in council" would soon be published by the British Government to meet the rigorous enforcement of the Berlin Decree. On the 16th of October, 1807, as if in prospect of a closer grapple with France, the British King issued a proclamation recalling all British seamen from the service of foreign Powers, under threat of punishment. The proclamation reached the United States in December, and was published in the *National Intelligencer* of December 14 in that year. When Mr. Adams says that it was published in the *Intelligencer* of December 17, he means that it was republished on that day in order to emphasize the editorial opinion expressed on the 14th, that "this proclamation looked very much like shutting the door on all negotiation," and that it "furnished abundant cause for preparing ourselves for a rupture." On this same day, the 14th of December, 1807, the official journal published also an address to the President from the Legislature of New Jersey, in which it was held that England, in openly avowing to the Danes that "she could no longer distinguish between neutrals and enemies," had become "professedly and intentionally the open and avowed enemy of every nation at peace." "This language," it was added, "though addressed to the Danes, speaks with equal solemnity to us." In the first draft of his message to Congress on the 18th of December, recommending the passage of an embargo act, Jefferson caught not only the ideas, but some of the very words, which his official organ had used four days before. The embargo message, as recast by Madison, contained no express reference to "retaliatory measures" of England, actual or apprehended. Four days later the Embargo Act had passed through both houses of Congress on the simple recommendation of the President, with no other *pièces justificatives* than a letter from Judge Regnier announcing that the Berlin Decree would be enforced, and a newspaper copy of the Royal Proclamation of October 16. The embargo was enacted in secret session of both houses, without any public definition of its real purpose, and without any limit put on its duration. The country was committed to a permanent policy of "peaceable coercion" without knowing it, and was so committed under a disguise. The voice of the Administration was the voice of Jacob, but its hands were the hands of Esau. Mr. Adams explains this policy of disguise by referring it to Jefferson's love of secrecy. But the President had a controlling reason for it in this case. In form the embargo was a purely "defensive" measure, and, as we shall see, it was so represented to England. In motive, aim, and purpose, the embargo was "offensive," being conceived as a substitute for war. Hence it was but natural that Jefferson should have wished to avoid any public discussion which could but reveal a contrariety between the outside look of the embargo and its "true inwardness."

At the time of sending in his embargo message to Congress the President had not received Percival's orders in council of November 11, 1807. But some "retaliatory measure" was believed to be impending, and the sweeping scope of its application had been already presaged. In the first draft of his message the President had referred to apprehensions on this score. The *National Intelligencer* of December 21, the day before the passage of the Embargo Act, had published a rumor that an order placing the whole of France and her dependencies in a state of siege was on the point of being signed at the date of last advices from London. On that same day Erskine, the British Minister, wrote to Canning that the embargo was being pushed through Congress "on the ground of expecting that a proclamation will be issued by his Majesty declaring France and her dependencies in a state of blockade." The letter was doubtless an echo of what he had read in that day's *Intelligencer*. On the 23d of December, one day after the passage of the Embargo Act, Erskine wrote that the Embargo Bill had been passed, and that it had been passed "from an apprehension of a retaliatory order by Great Britain." At the same time, he was careful to add that the measure, "as this Government declares," was not "a measure of hostility against Great Britain, but only a precaution against the risk of the capture of their ships in consequence of the decree of Bonaparte of November 21, 1806." The embargo is here made to speak with the voice of Jacob. One day later, two days after the passage of the Embargo Law, the official journal of the Administration held it clear that Great Britain was "meditating further retaliations," and on the following day it vindicated the whole embargo policy "as a weapon of negotiation" in future dealings with Great Britain. The embargo is here made to show the hands of Esau.

We have placed these facts and dates in juxtaposition for the purpose of demonstrating the ostensible causes and the secret motives which precipitated the embargo of December 22, 1807. Because the orders in council of November 11 had not reached the United States at the date of the passage of this untoward act, and because it was not formally specified by Jefferson in his embargo message as among the proceedings which called for such legislation, it was commonly asserted in after days by the Federalists that the British orders in council of November 11, 1807, had had no share in precipitating the embargo policy. This assertion left the way clear for the useful inference that the embargo, in being apparently instigated by the judgments of the French Admiralty Court, had been really devised in the interest and perhaps at the behest of the French tyrant.

This aspect of the question became for years the turning point of the whole embargo controversy considered in its relation to our domestic politics. The real cause of the embargo became the article of standing or falling parties in Massachusetts and in all New England. On the 4th of January, 1808, about two weeks after the passage of the restrictive act, we find James Sullivan, the Republican Governor of Massachusetts, writing to Senator John Quincy Adams (who had voted for the embargo *sans phrase*) a pathetic lamentation over "the close silence of our members at Washington in regard to the *cause* of the embargo." "This silence," he said, "gives an advantage to the Federalists over the Republicans." And when Jefferson, in a special message to Congress on the 4th of February, 1808, sent in the long-expected orders of Percival, and described them as "a *further* proof of the increasing dangers" which had justified the Embargo Act, the Federalists exulted in these words as a virtual admission that the orders in council of November 11 had had nothing to do as a procuring cause of the act.

John Quincy Adams, as every reader knows, fell a victim to the reticence of Jefferson in this matter. As a Senator from Massachusetts he had supported the embargo, expecting it would be the precursor of ulterior and more energetic measures; but when no such measures were forthcoming, he had to stand the brunt of the embargo policy in the pure and simple form in which it lay in the thought of Jefferson, to wit, as a permanent measure of peaceable coercion. The measure in this shape outraged alike the sentiments and the interests of Massachusetts. The Federalists carried a majority of the Legislature which was to elect John Quincy Adams's successor, and the fiery patriot, foreseeing the drift of opinion in his State, incontinently resigned his seat in the Senate. He resigned, doubtless, as much in vexation with Jefferson, who had caught him in an *impasse*, as with the Federalists of the Essex Junto who had set up their Caudine Forks in it for his humiliation.

The author admits that John Quincy Adams "made a mistake" in voting for the embargo without limit of time. He also made a mistake, according to his own admission at the time, in voting for the embargo without a public specification of the reasons on which it was based. This latter mistake was the more unaccountable because, in his diary, he records that the diplomatic papers sent with the message recommending the embargo seemed "utterly inadequate to warrant such a measure." To vote for the measure under such conditions was to place a club in the hands of his embittered colleague, Timothy Pickering. It is needless to say that the club was wielded with all possible effectiveness. In the whole checkered career of Pickering we can recall nothing which excites the admiration of our historian except

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the dexterity with which he conducted this assault on John Quincy Adams. Pickering's letter to the Legislature of Massachusetts, hinting at some secret (that is, French) motive as the real cause of the embargo, since the ostensible causes were not sufficient to justify it, is pronounced by the author to have been "a master stroke," and to be "stamped by a touch of genius." The praise seems slightly exaggerated; for what genius could it require to use a double-headed mistake for the discomfiture of a political adversary?

Omitting all discussion of the acts passed for the enforcement of the embargo (acts admitted by Gallatin to have involved the exercise of "arbitrary powers" at once "dangerous and odious"), we come to Mr. Adams's summary of results. His discussion under this head is calm and philosophical. He thinks the experiment essayed by Jefferson was worth trying as an object-lesson in the science and art of politics. The question to be decided was, which of two systems, the system of war or the system of commercial restriction, is likely to be the less costly and the more effective. The result showed that the embargo was an expensive system, and, in its immediate effects, was more destructive to the national wealth than war itself. While New England revolted at the system, the true burden of the embargo, as Mr. Adams justly says, fell on the South, and especially on Virginia. The remark is so just that we wonder the author did not authenticate it by citing from easily accessible tables the exact facts and figures which Matthew Carey compiled for the same purpose, with insufficient accuracy, in his 'Olive Branch.'

In its moral effects the embargo "opened the sluice-gates of social corruption," teaching men to evade or defy the laws where they did not accept an economical paralysis in their brains as well as in their hands. In point of political effect its cost to the party in power, as Mr. Adams shows, was simply ruinous. As a permanent lesson in politics, the moral of the embargo is pointed by Mr. Adams in the following terms, which seem to us as just as they are terse:

"The law of physics could easily be applied to politics: force could be converted only into its equivalent, force. If the embargo—an exertion of force less violent than war—was to do the work of war, it must extend over a longer time the development of an equivalent energy. Wars lasted for many years, and the embargo must be calculated to last much longer than any war; but meanwhile the morals, courage, and political liberties of the American people must be perverted or destroyed; agriculture and shipping must perish; the Union itself could not be preserved."

This last item in the expense account of the embargo leads us to remark briefly on the effect which the hapless measure had in promoting what Mr. Adams calls "the rise of a British party" in the politics of the United States. "The Federalists of 1800," he says, "were the national party of America. The Federalists of 1808 were a British faction in secret league with George Canning." Perhaps the statement is a little too broad, and confounds the rank and file of the Federalist party a little too closely with its leaders; but that these latter were too much disposed to side with English policies against the rights and honor of their own country must be conceded. The well-known toast of Pickering, coming a year or two later, did but blurt out the secret and honest conviction of the Federalist thinkers, that England had become "the last hope of the world." Secret correspondence was opened between representative men of the Federalist party and emissaries of Great Britain. The "principal characters in Boston" retailed their disaffection in the ears of John Henry, not knowing that that political pimp and spy would afterwards peach on them. Timothy Pickering fell an easy prey to the flatteries of George Henry Rose. "One by one," says our historian, "the Federalist leaders of New England gave in their adhesion to Pickering's plan for the calling of a convention of the New England States." It was deliberately proposed by Pickering that these States should "put their negative on the usurpations of the general Government"; and so it came to pass that he who, eight years before, had been a Federalist Secretary of State under John Adams, became, in 1808, a convert to the doctrines of "the Kentucky Resolutions of '98" in their pure and simple form of nullification. The revolution which had been in progress between the two parties for the last eight years was now completed, says Mr. Adams, and each party stood on the ground of the other as compared with their respective attitudes in 1798. With all his repulsion for the embargo, Mr. Adams is inclined to wonder at the "madness" it excited in New England, and gives expression to that wonder in terms which certainly do not lack for "local color" in their vividness. He says:

"Not for a full century had the old Puritan prejudice shown itself in a form so unreasoning and unreasonable; but although nearly one-half the people held aloof and wondered at the madness of their own society, the whole history of Massachusetts, a succession of half-forgotten disputes and rebellions, seemed to concentrate itself, for the last time, in a burst of expiring passions, mingled with hatred of Virginia and loathing for Jefferson, until the rest of America, perplexed at paroxysms so eccentric, wondered whether the spirit of Massachusetts liberty could ever have been sane. For the moment Timothy Pickering was its genius."

The repeal of the embargo was signed by Jefferson on the 1st of March, 1809, three days before the end of his term. If the repeal brought relief to the country, it brought to Jefferson a mortification which was indescribable, and over which he never ceased to mourn in tones of undissembled bitterness. It seemed to him a calamity from which he should have been spared by his country.

"So complete was his overthrow," says Mr. Adams, "that his popular influence declined even in the South. Twenty years elapsed before his political authority recovered power over the Northern people; for not until the embargo and its memories had faded from men's minds did the mighty shadow of Jefferson's Revolutionary fame efface the ruin of his Presidency. Yet he clung with more and more tenacity to the faith that his theory of peaceable coercion was sound; and when, within a few months of his death, he alluded for the last time to the embargo, he spoke of it as a 'measure which, persevered in a little longer, we had subsequent and satisfactory assurance would have effected its object completely.'"

So true is it that the parental instinct, in the breast even of a political philosopher, will fondly cling to the weakliest and most deformed of his offspring.

We cannot dismiss these volumes without bestowing a word of praise on the care with which they have been edited. Misprints are exceedingly rare. The name of Breckinridge, wherever it occurs, is spelled "Breckenridge," contrary to the modern usage. In our review of last week the types conspired with Mr. Adams's authority to misspell the name of Burr's Kentucky prosecutor. Mr. Adams always spells it "Daveiss." It should be Daviess. A worthy citizen who once filled a conspicuous place in Kentucky politics, who was closely connected with Chief-Justice Marshall (he married a sister of the Chief Justice), and whose name is still preserved in the county geography of Kentucky, should not pass into history under a misnomer.

THREE SPANISH NOVELS.

La Incógnita. Por B. Pérez Galdós. Madrid: Imprenta de *La Guirnalda.* 1889.

Realidad: Novela en cinco Jornadas. Por B. Pérez Galdós. Same publishers. 1890.

Sister Saint Sulpice. From the Spanish of Armando Palacio Valdés. By Nathan Haskell Dole. Authorized translation. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

THE latest two to be added to the forty-odd volumes of the leading Spanish novelist really constitute a single work; the first one getting a rather complicated mystery before the reader only to put off the explanation till the publication of the second. If it could be supposed that Galdós either needed or desired to resort to a trick to increase his sales, the relation of the two novels to the considerable interval between their appearance would have a vulgar look; but Spanish literary customs admit of many things which with us are unknown. 'La Incógnita' is made up entirely of letters sent by a young deputy, Manolo Infante, to a provincial friend. They gradually acquaint us with a rich old collector of antiquities, who professes the most revolutionary theories of society and property without any disposition whatever to exemplify them, and his daughter Augusta, the beautiful and vivacious wife of a man of independent fortune, Tomás Orozco. The deputy proceeds to fall in love with Augusta, in right Continental fashion, but finds himself distinctly rebuffed. He is in doubt whether this is due to the lady's virtue or to the existence of a more fortunate rival. Inclining to the latter theory, he endeavors to place his finger on the man.

There is a young Italian cosmopolite, Malibran, who has the rare advantage over his fellow-males of being able to discuss with ladies the details of their dressmaking with an enthusiasm and intelligence equal to their own. There is a young offshoot of an old family, fallen on evil times, Federico Viera, known to be desperately in debt, suspected of being a gambler, with many dubious acquaintances, yet constantly a guest at the Orozco dinners and receptions. Infante's suspicions fluctuate between these two, without any positive ground in the case of either, until finally Viera is found dead one morning in an outlying street, with two bullet-wounds. The police are completely baffled, and though gossip hastens to connect the Orozcos with the tragedy, every clue leads up to a dead wall, and the mystery of the murder and its cause appears impenetrable. Just there 'La Incógnita' ends.

For the form of correspondence, well fitted to present the mystery as it stood before the eyes of a single puzzled observer, 'Realidad' substitutes a dramatic narrative in five acts, wherein the whole ground of the story as it had been told in the letters is retravelled and the facts set forth exactly as they occurred. It then appears that Viera had been the favored one all along, Augusta having conceived a mad passion for him, and her husband, who is represented as a man of singularly noble character, having endeavored to befriend him, pay off his debts, recover him from his evil ways, and give him an opportunity to restore the honor of his family. The only shred of conscience that Viera has left, vibrates to the sense of monstrous ignominy in accepting such great favors from the man whom he is robbing of a wife, and his situation at last grows so intolerable morally—hounded by his

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creditors, help pressed upon him by Orozco, the one man in the world from whom he could not accept it, and unable to break away from the fascination of Augusta—that he puts a revolver to his head as the shortest way out of it.

Galdós certainly should not be accused of writing this story of wretched intrigue and dishonor for its own sake, as he undoubtedly means to subordinate the whole to his psychological study of the characters of Orozco and Viera, and to the drawing of a moral which may be supposed to be needed in Madrid. Yet it must seem a misuse of his immense wit and charming style to expend them on such a theme. As to the implied common existence of immorality such as Augusta's among the women of aristocratic society in the Spanish capital, we have some valuable testimony in the negative from one who is a novelist, a woman, and a member of the aristocracy, Emilia Pardo Bazán. She says she has often challenged impugners of her sex to name a dozen women in the upper circles of Madrid society whom even vague rumor hinted to be guilty of conjugal infidelity, and that she never could get more than three or four names. Referring to Pereda's novel, 'La Montalvez,' she affirms that his assumption that Spanish women of the nobility are as a rule unfaithful wives, rests not upon facts, but upon the survival of "the provincial tradition." One may hope that Galdós is similarly misled. Much could be forgiven him for the many delightful bits of characterization and description that occur in these pages of his.

Valdés correctly describes his latest novel in the sub-title which he gives it, "A Novel of Andalusian Manners." Its main purpose and interest lie in its pictures of life in Seville, where the Moorish imprint still lingers so plainly. The story turns upon the love of the hero for a nun—one not under irrevocable vows, of course, but temporarily and almost against her will in a sisterhood, whence her desire to emerge is distinctly heightened by her knowledge that he is waiting for her out in the world. She is a strange compound of qualities—mischievous, impulsive, passionate, or provokingly indifferent, according to her mood, immoderately jealous, and capable of overpowering affection. Her lover is a Gallegan, whose native shrewdness and eye to the main chance have a hard struggle with the idealist and poetic tendencies to which he thinks he is surrendering himself. His characterization at his own hands (he himself tells the whole story) is amusing enough. High and low life alike appear in the novelist's picture, and, that nothing might be left out, some scenes of coarse debauchery get in also.

Señor Valdés cannot be counted happy in his American translator. Mr. Dole's version of the novel is disfigured by a surprising number of blunders, some of which may be due to haste and carelessness, but scores of which cannot be explained on that hypothesis. We have space to cite only a few typical instances of his bad work, though the examples could easily be run up into the hundreds. "Lectures" as the rendering of "lecturas," "idiom" of "idioma," and "sentiment" of "sentimiento" are specimens of his short and easy (and wholly incorrect) way of Englishing his original. He translates "avasalladora" as "in abeyance" instead of "dominating," gets "clog-dancing" out of "pisotones en los callos" instead of "treading on corns," and in "no transijo" finds "I am not growing thin" instead of "I do not admit it." "Gabinete" he takes to mean "library," undeterred by the fact that Valdés immediately adds, "Not a book was anywhere to be seen." The proverbial expression, "Lo prometido es deuda," he renders, "What is promised is doubtful," instead of "A promise is a debt," and takes pains to notify the reader of the blunder by putting in the original Spanish as well as the absurd English. But it is when Mr. Dole tries to get the meat out of an idiom that he is most fearful and wonderful. We cite him twice at his worst. "Charlar por los codos" he supposes to mean "prate about the codes." It literally means to "chatter with the elbows," and is a perfectly common phrase used to denote offensively verbose speakers. Not knowing this, and making his usual short cut on the word "codos" (it never means "codes"), the translator gives us the amazing version mentioned. "Pelar la pava" is a slang phrase (Valdés uses it with a "con perdón de Ustedes"), literally meaning to "pluck the hen-turkey," and employed to denote the Spanish custom of courting by night through the grating of the balcony where the adored one sits. Mr. Dole makes a desperate drive at this idiom, and translates "pelo la pava" as "a sudden transformation"!

Notice should also be taken of Mr. Dole's way of dealing with literary allusions. In his translation of Valdés's fine prologue on novel-writing (which affords the translator opportunity for some of his neatest butcher-work), he writes "Chaide y Rivadeneira," as if those two classic writers were one person, allows the name of the Greek romancer, Longus, to appear in its Spanish form, "Longo," and refers to Balzac's details about "the heaps of sugar" in 'Eugénie Grandet.' Of course, "terrones de azúcar" might mean "heaps of sugar," but it also might mean "lumps of sugar," and if Mr. Dole had taken the trouble to look at Balzac, he would have seen that it must mean that, as it is the Spanish for "morceaux de sucre." He makes Cervantes to have been the "last *comisionado de apremio*," presumably because he does not know what a *comisionado de apremio* is. The climax is fairly capped, however, by his translating "el espectáculo del *Don Juan Tenorio*," as "the sight of Don Juan the tenor." Now, Zorrilla's "Don Juan Tenorio" is probably the most famous and best known piece of writing that has been done in Spain in the present century, and Valdés is referring to the performance ("espectáculo") of that drama; but Mr. Dole ignores even the warning italics, and soberly fetches out his paralyzing "Don Juan the tenor"! We gladly testify to the frequent felicity of the translation, and can only wonder that what has been so well done in parts should have been so fearfully done in other parts. The errors are so numerous and so bad that it is simple justice to say that, so far as this book is concerned, Mr. Dole is only, to imitate his own way of rendering a Spanish word, a traducer of Valdés.

THE PROBLEMATIC SOUTH.

Joel Chandler Harris's Life of Henry W. Grady, including his writings and speeches. A memorial volume compiled by Mr. Henry W. Grady's coworkers on the *Constitution*, and edited by Joel Chandler Harris (Uncle Remus). Cassell Publishing Company.

The Silent South. Together with the Freedman's Case in Equity. By George W. Cable. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

The Negro Question. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

THE title-page of the memorial Grady volume grossly misstates the character of its contents. It should read, 'Speeches of Henry W. Grady, with a sketch of his life by Joel Chandler Harris, and Various Tributes to his Memory.' The volume is a hasty compilation—so hasty that the proofs have not had any critical revision; and though Mr. Harris appears upon the title-page not only as biographer, but also as editor, his editorial work must have been nominal. Thus, while he gives April 24, 1850, as the date of Mr. Grady's birth, the next contributor gives May 17, 1851, and the reader who pays his money is obliged to take his choice without any editorial or other help. In a felicitous quotation from George Eliot in Mr. Grady's Elberon speech, "A sweet habit of the blood" appears as "a sweet habit of the blest," and there are many typographical slips which no theological bias can excuse. Mr. Watterson, the only Southern editor of equal standing with Mr. Grady, leads off with a few perfunctory pages, and after Mr. Harris's "Life" there is a memorial sketch by Marion J. Verdery, prepared for the New York Southern Society, which presents the leading circumstances of Mr. Grady's life in a much more orderly arrangement than the sketch which names the book. Next we have seven of Mr. Grady's speeches and a selection from his writings; then seventeen "Poems by Various Hands," memorial pieces, only one of which, James Whitcombe (*sic*) Riley's, has any literary value. The kind intention of the others does not redeem their wretched doggerel. An account of memorial meetings in Atlanta and Macon follows, and then "Personal Tributes," the third and last an astonishing sermon by Dr. Talmage, which reaches its climax of absurdity in a final apostrophe: "Not broken down, but ascended. Not collapsed, but irradiated. Enthroned one! Coronetted one! Sceptred one! Emparadised one! Hail and farewell!" After 160 pages of "Tributes" of the Northern and Southern press, there is a glowing account of the fortunes of the Atlanta *Constitution*, and in conclusion certain "Letters and Telegrams from Distinguished Persons."

The editorial tributes from the Southern are more elaborate than those from the Northern press, and have much more rhetorical effusiveness, though in the others there is enough of this. In neither does the admiration for the man or the grief for his loss admit of any question of its sincerity. The eulogy is frequently extravagant, but there is some good analysis of Mr. Grady's admirable gifts. Several of the selections from Mr. Grady's writings illustrate the hold that Dickens had on his affections. Hugo was another favorite whose name was often on his lips. But by far the most valuable of these writings is a reply to Mr. Cable's 'Silent South,' from the *Century*, April, 1885. It has a definiteness and concreteness which the speeches lack. The rhetoric does not so much obscure the thought. If this reply is not a sufficient answer to Mr. Cable's 'Silent South,' it is an answer which no sympathetic reader of Mr. Cable's book has a right to leave unread.

Mr. Harris is evidently but ill pleased with his part of the book. He describes it as "a hurriedly written sketch, which is thrown together to meet the modern exigencies of publishing"; and, further along in the same paragraph, he says: "These reminiscences have taken on a disjointed shape sadly at variance with the demands of literary art." These judgments of the author the candid reader will approve. The facts of Mr. Grady's life are, as we have said, better stated in the next following paper. His first real hit in journalism was his study in Florida of the disputed election of 1876. At the same time he "wrote up" the Florida orange, and in so doing entered bravely on that careful study and eager adver-

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tisement of the resources of the South which were the most characteristic features of his editorial career, and constituted his best hold on the grateful appreciation of the Southern people. He was a poetical materialist in all his dealings with questions of agriculture and manufacture in the South, and there was something so contagious in his enthusiasm that he probably did more than any other writer or speaker to create the industrial New South. Mr. Harris notes the singular fact that his early journalistic ventures were all unfortunate. He finds its explanation in the newness of his methods, for which the South was not prepared. An editorial article on Southern Conventions secured him a place as correspondent of the New York *Herald*. How he got the paper and found his article was in it, and cried like a child over his good fortune, is told by Mr. Verdery in a happy way. Soon after, he got his first appointment on the *Constitution*, and for that and the *Herald* wrote his famous Florida letters. Cyrus Field loaned him the $20,000 with which he bought a share of the *Constitution* in 1880, the value of which increased to $150,000 before his death. This increased value was the very coinage of his brain. The strongest episode of his editorial career was his taking the prohibition side of the temperance campaign in Georgia while his partner took the other. They made things lively and amusing, but there was no lack of earnestness in Grady's editorials or speeches.

Mr. Grady was preëminently a man of sentiment. We do not feel so sure as Mr. Harris that his sentiment never degenerated into sentimentality. We think it sometimes did, and that sometimes it obscured for him the lines of truth and justice in political and social matters. But for the most part it was sound and sweet. It was the source, in part, of his wide popularity. It furnished his speeches and orations with their Celtic warmth. It made him hosts of friends. In all private and personal relations it is evident that he was most loving and most lovable. For children and young people he had a very great affection. The same tenderness and passion that went to his private relations went to his feeling for Atlanta, for Georgia, for the South, and for the Union. The ardor of his patriotism was a wonder in these days when patriotism withers and the partisan is more and more. When he took a thing in hand, he left no stone unturned that could be built into its success. The Atlanta Cotton Exposition of 1881 was one of his greatest personal triumphs, and that of 1887 was another. When his influence was least apparent, it was often most important. Whether he was without political ambition or was biding his time, there is little here to show. That he was a Warwick in his way, a maker of Governors and Senators, there can be no doubt. No other man was so grandly representative of the New South. No other of approximate ability was so nearly equal to forgetting the things that are behind and looking forth to those that are before. It would not be easy to exaggerate his influence upon Southern thought and feeling. It was inevitable that the quality of his work and its success should inspire a host of editorial writers and political aspirants to make the lines of his activity their own.

His speeches and the *Century* article already named are worth all the other matter in these 600 pages. The speeches are remarkable for their energy and for the beauty of their thought and style. Add the speaker's ardent and engaging personality, and no one can wonder at their known effectiveness. They are full of poetry and sentiment. They are excessively rhetorical, and the rhetoric might be pruned of some of its less carefully considered phrases without any loss. His most questionable metaphor is, "The dews of night that fall from the distillery of the stars." This is conspicuously bad, and is more strange because of Mr. Grady's temperance principles. There is much repetition in the speeches, both in their general structure and in particular passages and illustrations. Their general structure is twofold: they deal about equally with the renascence of Southern industry and enterprise and with the race problem. In the handling of the former matter there is an effervescence that is quite intoxicating to the imagination. It is almost too good to believe that we have not a too glowing picture, but it is confirmed by many witnesses, notably by Mr. C. D. Warner and by Mr. Cable, whose opinions with respect to the race problem are not those of Mr. Grady. The New York and Boston banquet speeches of 1886 and 1889 have had the widest fame, but they do not repay the reader nearly so well as the Atlanta Exposition speech of 1887 and the Dallas (Texas) State Fair speech of the same year. Mr. Grady was too sympathetic, if not too politic, to be unaffected by the locality and atmosphere in which he spoke. The same ideas reappear in all his speeches, but for his clearest thought the Southern speeches are the more significant.

His solution of the race problem is well known. It is perfect equality in all political and civil rights, but separation in social and domestic life, in travel, in education: the white child or adult no more at liberty to enter the black man's school or car than the black child or adult to enter the white man's. Much is made of the race instinct, "which, if it did not exist, would have to be created." But he is certain that it does exist, and, in his talk of race-types as "markers of God's will," we are sometimes painfully reminded of the ante-bellum talk about God's curse upon the children of Ham. There is too much insistence that the white race is superior and the black must be subordinate. A Northern fire eater would interpret this as justifying the suppression of the negro vote, but it has no such meaning: that there must be no such suppression is insisted again and again. The meaning is the same as if one should say that the intelligence of New York city must and shall dominate the ignorance. But it is too easily taken for granted that all white men as such are more intelligent than all black men as such, which surely is not so. And the intelligence of black men ought to dominate the ignorance of white men. Mr. Grady would have strengthened his position if he had made intelligence and character the ground of domination, and let the race distinction go. A man of his courage should have been able to say, Let intelligence and character rule, whatever the complexion of the man. He was never more eloquent than in his praise of the negro: "History has no parallel to the faith kept by the negro during the war"; "A thousand torches would have disbanded every Southern army, but not one was lighted." It would seem that these things should have suggested that the negro has no inherent tendency to lawlessness, and that the chaos of the reconstruction period was more the carpet-baggers' than the negroes' fault. Without doubting the sincerity of Mr. Grady's assurance that there is no intimidation to speak of, and that criminal justice favors the black man rather than the white, it is allowable to doubt the justness of his view. Mr. Watterson admits the intimidation and suppression. But it is an ugly fact for the Northern Bourbon that in 1888 the South cast 67 per cent. of her total vote, the New England States but 63 per cent. of theirs. A small vote does not, then, necessarily mean a suppressed vote.

A new edition of Mr. Cable's 'Silent South' and his just published 'Negro Problem' will be found interesting and suggestive reading in connection with Mr. Grady's speeches. One cannot but regret that Mr. Cable did not maintain his Southern residence, so that his criticism might have been of the Southerners by one of themselves in appearance as well as in reality. The new edition of his 'Silent South' is different from the first only by the addition of two replies to Mr. Cable's strictures, with his replies to them, in which—criminal justice being the principal matter in dispute—Mr. Cable seems to show that he did not in the first instance speak without due warrant, but in the course of the discussion it is brought out that there is almost as much difference in the judicial treatment of the negro in the Northern as in the Southern States. Mr. Cable's 'Negro Question' is an elaborate reply to Mr. Grady's speeches, though not avowedly. His name only once appears, and he is seldom quoted. Mr. Cable has often been charged with claiming social equality for the negro with the white man: he makes it plain that he does nothing of the sort. His own idea is nowhere better expressed than in the articles of a civil-rights club of colored men organized to foster civil equality and the "recognition of every man's inviolable right to select and reject his social companions and acquaintances according to his own private pleasure or conscience." He is at his best in his chapter, "What Shall the Negro Do?" For one thing, "Keep his vote alive"; and this means that he shall determine in advance to vote with neither party as such; that he must stop "voting for gratitude" to the Republican party for its past services; that he must vote on all questions, and not merely on those which concern his own immediate interests; that he must cast his vote, though he has to die for doing so. In some of these positions Mr. Cable is evidently "between the devil and the deep sea," and will please the Republican as little as the Democrat. But it is evident throughout that he is no partisan, but goes his own way, let who will praise him or forbear. He is flatly opposed to Mr. Grady in his demand for the breaking of the color line. In that case Mr. Grady anticipated dreadful things for the negro: "His credulity would be played upon, his cupidity tempted, his impulses misdirected, his passions inflamed." Mr. Cable fears no such event, and shows us why he does not quite sufficiently.

We can also go with him very largely in his closing chapter on "The Southern Struggle for Pure Government." Purity without freedom is impossible; it is the stream poisoned at its source. If Mr. Grady overworked the reconstruction scare, Mr. Cable does less than justice to its natural influence. We do not believe that there is any soundness in his reasoning that the South has accepted the destruction of slavery so heartily because what she wanted was race superiority, and she finds that she can have this just as well without slavery as with it. His argument for national aid to Southern schools is offered somewhat timidly, as if he were not himself entirely sure it would be best, though he shows that Mr. Grady's figures—a white assessment in Georgia of $368,000,000, a black assessment of $10,000,000, while the black children are 49 per cent.—is not proportionately made good throughout the South. In "The Inventions of Despair" such vagaries as a negro Territory and deportation to Africa

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are disposed of none too summarily, but there is some talk of Federal interference that is not a particle more sane. While in particulars acknowledging the sporadic nature of the evils he deplores, Mr. Cable is continually bringing his indictment against the whole people of the South, and assuming that some general treatment is required. Though he is one of the sternest critics of the Southern situation, it is impossible to read his book without astonishment that so much has been already accomplished, or without hope that all will yet be well. Somehow we have found ourselves rising from the perusal of his pages as little tempted to discouragement as by Mr. Grady's more optimistic but less pressingly moral strain.

Into Morocco. Translated from the French of Pierre Loti. New York: Welch, Fracker Co. Pp. 343.

On reading De Amicis's entertaining volume on Morocco, or his other volumes of travel, one notes here and there the influence of Gautier's example and methods. Still more obvious is it that the author of this charming and dainty little volume was inspired to his task by the example of De Amicis. The latter accompanied an Italian embassy to Fez, while "Pierre Loti" followed a French embassy. This is the only safe way of travelling in the interior, and it is quite safe, as the chiefs of the various districts who in turn take charge of the foreigners, are responsible with their own heads for the safety of the party. But naturally, under these circumstances, there had to be a certain resemblance between the descriptions of the two writers. Both travelled in tents provided by the Sultan, both were received at the entrance to a new department by troops of wild horsemen firing blank cartridges at them; while the *mouna*, or provisions, were everywhere supplied as a compulsory tribute of respect by the rulers of every camping-station.

In the matter of style, however, there is a great difference between the two writers, De Amicis's forte being bold *al-fresco* painting, while Pierre Loti excels in minute realistic touches, and often succeeds in bringing a scene most vividly before the eyes in a single sentence. Better than any other writer on "the China of the West," he succeeds in making the reader realize the mediæval and worse than mediæval condition of the African Northwest, where there are no roads, no bridges, no taverns, where the streets are sewers, where women are treated as masked prisoners, and Jews worse, and where religious fanaticism is so rampant that a "Nazarene" takes his life in his hands if he visits any part of the country except Tangier and Tetuan. Tangier, where the foreign consuls and ambassadors reside, is considered an "infidel" city by the natives of Morocco. On coming to it from Spain, it seems so odd and so African that one imagines himself in the centre of Africa. Yet, as compared with Fez, Tangier seems quite Parisian, and after a week spent in Fez, Pierre Loti felt that same irresistible longing to get back into the world that was described by De Amicis, and which makes it impossible for ambassadors and other "Nazarenes" to remain in that city.

Worse even than Fez is one of the Sultan's other capitals, Mequinez, of which a most gruesome and realistic description is given in this volume. As the party on arriving there had not yet been provided with the Sultan's permission to enter, they were compelled to camp outside the city, and the place assigned them was discovered in the morning to be a cemetery. An escort of eighty men was sent out to guard them, for the region is so infested by robbers belonging to unsubdued tribes that the city itself has not been safe from their attacks even in the daytime. Painful pictures are drawn of the filth and poverty and misery of the natives, of old women kneeling among the mules and picking up stray kernels of oats, or bones and worse refuse. Morocco, nevertheless, is a most fertile country, with a vast amount of good agricultural land, which needs only tillage, and Government protection for the farmers, to become a granary for the whole of Europe; but their religion does not allow the inhabitants to benefit by the sale of grain to foreigners. With all these drawbacks, our author found nature and life in Morocco so fascinating that he confesses that, personally, he "would rather be the most holy Caliph than president of the most parliamentary, most literary, most industrious of republics. The lowest of camel-drivers, even, who, his courses in the desert ended, lies down and dies in the bright sunlight some fine day, extending his confiding hands in prayer to Allah, seems to me to have had by far the better part than the laborer in the great European workshop, be he diplomat or be he stoker, who ends his martyrdom of toil and covetousness in blaspheming upon his bed."

The Way Out of Agnosticism; or, The Philosophy of Free Religion. By Francis Ellingwood Abbot, Ph.D. Pp. 75. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890.

Dr. Abbot, in this little volume, sounds the tocsin much as an orthodox theologian would do, and it is a very interesting spectacle to see liberalism taking alarm at its own progress. Still, the present case may only be one of those very common occurrences in which the individual has either not seen the consequences of his original doctrine, or has taken fright at them and beats a retreat. Certainly the spirit of the book is reactionary and conservative to an extent not expected of a man who has all his life clamored for a "free religion." Dr. Abbot is disturbed by the progress of agnosticism, and writes this summary of his lectures at Harvard to help the student out of this presumably unpromising philosophy. The "way out," when sifted down to its real meaning, is simply "feeling," which is to stick to certain time-honored beliefs—no matter what facts, science, and the limits of human knowledge may say about our inability to take a rational attitude towards them one way or the other.

It is a true instinct which leads the author to single out 'Robert Elsmere' and 'John Ward, Preacher' as representatives of the great struggle going on between reason and emotion, whenever religious problems are discussed; but he fails to remark that if religion is a "feeling," an emotion, or an intuition, a philosophy can never supply it where it is wanting. Those who are *in* agnosticism generally remain there, and those who come *out* of it generally defy the philosophy which tries to hold them in doubt, and so decide their convictions by sheer force of will. They think they have found a rational basis for their beliefs; but if their reasoning were examined, it would be found either to contain a material fallacy, or to have been adopted as the only way to satisfy the feelings.

The book is commendable for its earnestness and for the moral ideals in which it springs and which it fosters. But this apology does not require us to recognize the assumption that the only way into religion and out of existing agnosticism is the adoption of a philosophy. There are two fundamental truths here which the author does not perceive. The first is, that religion comes by insight, if it ever comes at all; and the second is, that philosophy does less to supply new truth than to supervene upon knowledge already acquired. These prevent it from ever being a condition of the beliefs which Dr. Abbot labors so strenuously to defend.

The Prose Writings of Thomas Davis. Edited, with an introduction, by T. W. Rolleston. London: Walter Scott.

This volume consists for the most part of short articles contributed half-a-century ago to Irish periodicals. None but writings by authors of the first ability, whose genius elevates their work above the passing circumstances of their time, would merit or bear such republication. There was a high and a pure purpose in what Davis wrote, but we cannot agree with the editor that there was in either his prose or his poetry, upon the whole, a higher and a wider spirit apparent than that which animates the present Irish movement. It was possible for Davis and his associates to put forward an ideal standard, because they were not brought face to face with the actual necessity of doing and accomplishing something in action. It is little wonder that there was small space left for poetry in the movement for the redress of the land grievances of Ireland, which, forty years after Davis's time, had to grapple with forty years' additional complications. And as the outcome of that movement, there appears to us arising a much higher ideal of union and of friendship between Great Britain and Ireland than was ever dreamt of by the author of these essays—essays whose interest and value for the most part lie in the revelation they afford of a state of feeling in Ireland which has largely passed away, and of hopes and anticipations which have not been realized, but which have been replaced by higher and wider ideals. The influence of Carlyle is apparent throughout the pages of the book before us.

Idle Musings: Essays in Social Mosaic. By E. Conder Gray. London: William Heinemann. 1890.

This collection of social essays belongs to the class of light editorial articles which are generally to be found in English weeklies; they are light subjects lightly handled. The opening group, upon Falling in Love and other topics of the marriage-state, on the male woman and the female man, serves as a type of the whole. The only unusual trait is the illustration of the characters dealt with by means of extracts from novels such as Mrs. Oliphant's and Mrs. Wood's; in this way a "mosaic" is easily made of commonplace reflections, apt quotations from well-known moralists, and a page or two of fiction. The range afforded by marriage being once exhausted, the author betakes himself to such material as Luck, Falling in Love with One's Work, Making the Best of Things, and the miscellaneous etcetera of which these are examples. He writes easily and agreeably, and except that he does not use anecdote to the degree which it is capable of in such chapters of manners and morals, he employs the resources of the idling littérateur with much felicity.

An International Idiom. A Manual of the Oregon Trade Language or Chinook Jargon. By Horatio Hale. London: Whittaker & Co. 1890. Sm. 8vo, vi., 63 pp.

In nearly all cases where commerce has sprung up between two nations having languages dis-

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tinct in grammar and vocabulary, the necessities of the situation have led to the adoption of a jargon, *lingua franca*, or business language, for purposes of trade. Such are the "pidgin (business) English" of China, the Chinook jargon of the northwest coast of America, and the jargons in use by the whalers and traders in communicating with the Chukchi and Eskimo peoples on either shore of Bering Strait, and by these latter with each other. Such artificial languages have become permanent only in cases where one or both parties using them have not been numbered among civilized nations, and yet were too numerous or sturdy to disappear rapidly when brought into contact with aliens. That a jargon should be capable of pronunciation with clearness by both parties using it is obviously one condition of its existence. This leads to the elimination of all incompatible sounds from the words of either language which may be incorporated in it. A second condition is, that it shall be easily learned, and that a few words by compounding shall be made to express a variety of meanings. This leads to the elimination of inflections, conjugations, and declensions—in short, to the greatest possible simplification of grammatic forms. The words are derived from the languages of the traders concerned; the grammar, such as it is, has often little in common with either.

In the Bering Strait jargon the nouns are drawn from the Eskimo, English, Russian, and Hawaiian languages, and on the Asiatic side the Chukchi tongue contributes its share. A smaller number of words arise by onomatopœia. The verbs on the American side were formerly largely of Russian derivation, but, with the increase in American trade since the transfer of Alaska to the United States, many English verbs have been added to or have supplanted the others. In the case of the Chinook jargon, American traders in the last century began the work on the Northwest coast. Here the native languages were numerous, very local, harsh and complex. As the harbor of Nootka was the headquarters of the traffic, some words of the Nootka dialect became known to the traders, while a few English words were rapidly picked up by the natives. As trade spread to other parts of the coast, the traders naturally tried to communicate with the aborigines by means of the words which they had used at Nootka. The Chinooks soon acquired these words, both Nootka and English, and as early as 1804 they were found in use by the expedition of Lewis and Clarke to the mouth of the Columbia River. To these the English and Canadian French voyageurs of the Hudson Bay Company added others, and the Chinook dialect was drawn upon for numerals, some pronouns, adverbs, and prepositions.

The first scientific record of this jargon was made by the author of this volume as a member of Wilkes's expedition in 1841, when the total number of words was found to be about two hundred and fifty. Of these, eighteen were of Nootkan origin, forty-one English, thirty-four French, one hundred and eleven Chinook, ten onomatopoetic, and some thirty-eight of doubtful origin. The vocabulary of the language continued to develop. In 1863 the "Dictionary" of George Gibbs comprised nearly five hundred words. Those of Chinook origin had nearly, and those of French had more than, doubled, while some thirty-nine had been added from the Flathead dialects. Since that time the language has not materially changed; its use has widely extended, and numerous vocabularies have been printed. One issued at Victoria, in 1887, had reached its sixth edition, which proves the continued and widespread use of this international speech. There can be no doubt that it will remain a living and useful language as long as the native tribes continue to speak their own dialects. In British Columbia and southeastern Alaska it is the prevailing means of communication between whites and natives. These Indian tribes do not seem likely to die out. The jargon is in use for missionary purposes; hymns and sermons have been printed in it, so that it is beginning to possess a literature, and Dr. Hale finds reason to believe that it will still have its office to fulfil among the many-languaged tribes of this region for hundreds and perhaps thousands of years to come.

This little treatise was originally designed to form part of a larger work now deferred. It comprises a complete grammar and dictionary, with specimens of colloquial and narrative phrases, songs, hymns, a sermon, etc. That all this can be comprised in so small a space, for a language current among people in all stages of civilization, speaking more than twenty distinct languages, and diffused over a territory nearly half as large as Europe, seems marvellous indeed.

It is not necessary to state that the work has been performed in a manner commensurate with the reputation of the author. Even those who are not professed philologists will find the account of the formation and construction of the jargon interesting reading. The publishers have presented the volume in handy and attractive form, and it will no doubt have a wide field of usefulness.

The Syntax and Idioms of Hindûstânî, etc. By M. Kempson, M.A. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1890.

We have already had occasion, in Nos. 1028 and 1130 of the *Nation*, to appraise excellent work done by Mr. Kempson, both as a translator and as an editor, in connection with Hindûstânî. And quite as helpful towards assisting the acquirement of that language as anything which he has previously published, is the admirable treatise now before us. Among the kindred guides which have preceded it, one or two are by no means wanting in merit; but, with all their laudable points, they must now count on being wholly superseded. Only by the aids which such scholars as Mr. Platts and Mr. Kempson have furnished can the student, if debarred access to the oral instruction of a native of Northern India, satisfactorily pick his way through a single page of any Hindûstânî book written within the last half century. Alike in vocabulary, in phraseology, and in grammar, to such an extent does the Hindûstânî of our time differ from that which was exhibited by Gilchrist and his immediate successors, as, indeed, to go far to constitute a new language. English anterior, by however short an interval, to that of Sir Philip Sidney was, in Dr. Johnson's estimation, little better than a jargon of barbarians; and yet, spelling apart, far less unlike it is English as now current than is the Hindûstânî of the present day to that of two or three generations ago. It is well-nigh solely as a medium of communication, and all but inappreciably for its literature, that any one busies himself to learn Hindûstânî; and every facility for learning it in its latest modification is now available. To enable the student to dispense with the offices of a teacher, Mr. Kempson announces that a key to the exercises embodied in his new work is in preparation. It will be very welcome.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Bazán, Emilia P. Russia: Its People and its Literature. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Bigot, Mme. A Foreign Match. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Burckhardt, J. The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Burnham, Clara L. The Mistress of Beech Knoll. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Douglass, Mrs. H. D. A Romance at the Antipodes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Finerty, J. F. War-Path and Bivouac; or, The Conquest of the Sioux. Chicago.
Flammarion, C. Uranie. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Gildersleeve, Prof. B. L. Essays and Studies, Educational and Literary. Baltimore: N. Murray.
Gosse, E. Robert Browning: Personalia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Gray, Rev. G. Z. The Church's Certain Faith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Green, W. S. Among the Selkirk Glaciers. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Griffis, Rev. W. E. Matthew Calbraith Perry. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Griswold, W. M. Autoren- und Sachregister zu den bedeutendsten Deutschen Zeitschriften, 1886-1889, und zu verschiedenen Sammlungen. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Hall, H. Society in the Elizabethan Age. 3d ed. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Hall, W. E. Treatise on International Law. 3d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hammond, Dr. W. A. Lal: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Harte, Bret. A Waif of the Plains. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hay, John. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
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How Shall We Revise the Westminster Confession of Faith? Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Jackson, Julia Newell. A Winter Holiday in Summer Lands. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Jewett, Sarah O. Tales of New England. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Jerome, J. K. The Idle Thoughts of an Idle Fellow. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Landor, W. S. Pericles and Aspasia. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co.
Lang, A. Old Friends: Essays in Epistolary Parody. Longmans, Green & Co.
Le Strange, G. Palestine under the Moslems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Mahan, Capt. A. T. The Influence of Sea Power upon History. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.
Mason, E. G. Early Chicago and Illinois. Chicago: Fergus Printing Co.
Morfill, W. R. The Story of Russia. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Noll, A. H. A Short History of Mexico. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
O'Brien, W. When We Were Boys. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Parville, H. de. L'Exposition Universelle. Paris: J. Rothschild. $1.50.
Perry, B. The Broughton House. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Phelps, Elizabeth S., and Ward, H. D. The Master of the Magicians. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Pierce, E. S. Poems of the Turf, and Other Ballads. Buffalo: Wenborne-Sumner Co. $2.
Raleigh, T. An Outline of the Law of Property. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Renan, E. L'Avenir de la Science. 3d ed. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Westermann.
Rowell, J. C. Library of the University of California: Contents-Index. Vol. I. Berkeley, Cal.

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